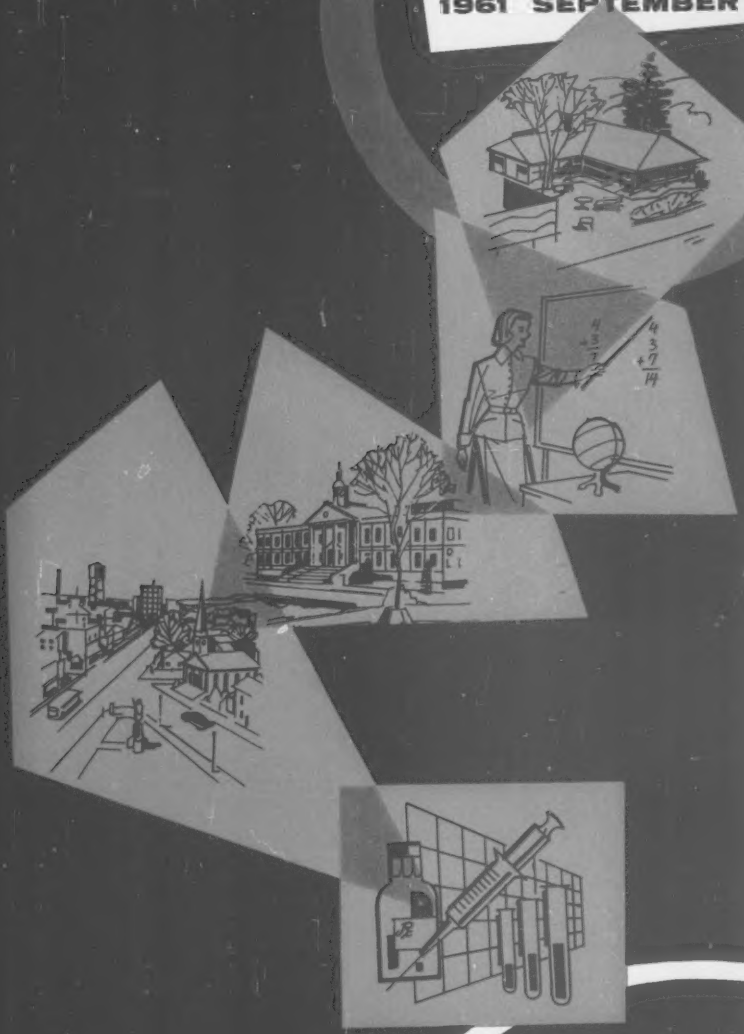
1961 SEPTEMBER



Exceptional Children

CEC DATES

Oct. 1961	Delaware Branch Annual, Harlan School, Wilmington.
Oct. 1961	Alabama Branch Annual, Montgomery.
Oct. 6-8, 1961	Georgia Federation Annual, Rock Eagle Conference Center, Eatonton.
Oct. 12-14, 1961	Pennsylvania Federation Annual, Bedford Springs Hotel, Bedford.
Oct. 20, 1961	Texas Federation Annual, Houston.
Oct. 20,-21, 1961	Illinois Federation Annual, Sheraton Jefferson Hotel, St. Louis, Mo.
Oct. 26-27, 1961	Colorado Federation Annual, Denver.
Oct. 26-27, 1961	Florida Federation Annual, University of Tampa.
Oct. 26-27, 1961	Oklahoma Branch Annual, Central High School Bldg., Oklahoma City.
Oct. 26-28, 1961	Ontario Federation Annual, Connaught Hotel, Hamilton, Ontario.
Nov. 15-18, 1961	CEC Western Fall Regional, Olympic Western Hotel, Seattle, Washington.
Nov. 16-18, 1961	New York Federation Annual, Hotel New Yorker, New York City.
Nov. 29-Dec. 2, 1961	CEC West Central Fall Regional, Commodore Perry Hotel, Austin, Texas.
Apr. 24-28, 1962	CEC International Convention, Deshler Hilton Hotel* and Neil House, Columbus, Ohio.

*Convention Headquarters

OTHER DATES

Sept. 23, 1961	National Organization for Mentally Ill Children, Barbizon Plaza, New York, New York.
Sept. 25-26	International Conference on Deafness (Sept. 27-30, meeting of experts of the Scientific Section of the World Federation of the Deaf) Rome, Italy.
Sept. 26-28	Canadian Association for Retarded Children Annual Conference, Vancouver Hotel, Vancouver, B. C.
Oct. 2-4	National Rehabilitation Association, Whitcomb Hotel, San Francisco.
Oct. 9-15	National Association for Retarded Children, Sheraton-Palace Hotel, San Francisco, California.
Oct. 17-21	National Safety Congress, Chicago, Illinois.
Oct. 27-28	Alexander Graham Bell Association for the Deaf Regional Meeting, Fort Lauderdale, Florida.
Nov. 2-4	American Hearing Society Annual Meeting, La Salle Hotel, Chicago, Illinois.
Nov. 5-8	American Speech and Hearing Association, Chicago, Illinois.
Nov. 17-21	National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, Denver-Hilton Hotel, Denver, Colorado.
Dec. 27-31	Speech Association of America, New York, New York.

President's Page

LEO F. CAIN

"PROFESSIONAL Standards" was the theme of our 1961 Convention. In various ways this theme was reflected in almost every section meeting of the convention, but it came into clearest focus in one half-day which was entirely devoted to this topic. First there was a general session in which reports were heard from the TEPS Commission, NCATE and one special education training and research center.* Immediately following, the entire convention was divided into fifteen concurrent discussion forums.

Maynard C. Reynolds of the University of Minnesota was responsible for developing this significant part of the convention program. The report which follows is based on his analysis of the outcome of the discussion forums, and was made possible by the outstanding work of recorders assigned to each group. Topics which emerged in the discussions are organized under four general headings.

Pre-Service Preparation of Teachers

Recruitment, Screening and Selection of Teacher Candidates. A recurrent theme in the discussions was the need to improve methods of recruiting, screening and selecting teacher candidates in special education. Expressions to the effect that "money" in special education may be drawing some persons with poor motivational patterns crept above the threshold in several groups. Widespread belief that high standards draw high quality people was evident. Recruitment was recognized as a responsibility at all levels; better work in screening and selection is asked of Colleges and Universities.

Length and Nature of Pre-Service Preparation. Much discussion centered on five-year preparation plans and proved highly controversial. Some felt that extension of all training programs to five years as a minimum is an essential aspect of building standards and others, that "until we improve four-year programs, why add more of the same?" Some discussants were concerned with extending general education of teachers and visualized five-year programs as a means of attaining this end. It appeared that there was more concern with quality of programs than with extension of programs, but interest was lively on all phases of this topic.

Laboratory Experiences. Many discussants reported poor practices by colleges in selecting and supervising student teaching and internship experiences. Relationships between teacher-preparing institutions and schools need to be generally improved, especially in providing laboratory experiences for teacher candidates.

College Faculty. Many convention registrants were critical of college faculties in special education. Seeking improvements here was rather uniformly judged to be a top priority problem. CEC members want their college instructors to have a background of successful classroom-teaching experience and to get back to the classroom more than occasionally.

Degree of Specialization in Preparatory Pro-

* Dr. DAVID DARLAND, Assistant Secretary, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards; DR. EUGENE ELLIOTT, President, Eastern Michigan University and Member of the Board of the National Council for Accredition of Teacher Education and DR. SAMUEL KIRK, Director, Institute for Research on Exceptional Children, University of Illinois.

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grams. Several groups reported the belief that preparatory programs are frequently too "narrowly-gauged," neglectful of general education and too specialized on problems of the retarded, crippled or some other particular group. It was felt that the children in special education programs often present multiple problems and that teacher preparation should be broadened in focus to be realistic. Another aspect of "narrowness" was discussed concerning needs for heightening the appreciation by teacher candidates of the potential contributions of psychologists, social workers, and other professional persons with whom they work.

In-Service Programs for Teachers

Supervision. CEC convention registrants felt that few problems deserved more attention than improvement of supervision of special education programs. The need for careful supervision is especially great for new teachers. Lack of well-developed standards for preparation and selection of supervisors is also a problem.

Summer Training and Special Workshops. This topic was given attention in the context of both pre-service and in-service preparation of teachers. There seemed to be agreement that dependence upon summer session courses for the total professional sequence in special education (presuming background as a regular teacher) was undesirable, but perhaps a necessity in some areas of extreme teacher shortage. Positive expressions were frequent about specialized summer training and other specialized workshops when used as in-service training devices. The need here is for advanced workshops on highly specialized topics.

Pay Differential. Some groups discussed the problem of pay differential which now often favors special education teachers over other school personnel. No consensus was evident, but the topic is lively and merits further consideration. It is related to recruitment, retention, and morale problems.

Accreditation and Certification

Discussion groups rather uniformly expressed hope for an accelerated activity in the accreditation field to establish standards for training programs. Attention was centered on the need for efforts at the national level and through appropriate accreditation bodies.

Dissatisfaction was expressed by some groups with certification procedures which, in some states, still require "credit counting." Action was urged to tie certification of individuals to successful completion of accredited preparatory programs. This action will, out of necessity, come primarily at the State level.

There are frequent frustrations for special education teachers who want to move from one state to another because of differences in certification requirements. Discussants recognized that adequate information is not available to justify a single national standard for certification, but expressed hope that reciprocity among states in certification will be achieved as rapidly as feasible. There are probably a good many unnecessary obstacles to teacher mobility which could be removed without standardizing all aspects of teacher preparation.

Implementation

Following are a few recommendations for achieving desirable objectives in the field of professional standards which emerged from the discussion groups.

1. A plan should be developed whereby problems of professional standards are given continuing attention in CEC at all levels and by all individual members.

2. Work should be accelerated to develop standards for training programs in each area of special education, which could then be used in further work toward accreditation of specific programs.

3. CEC efforts in recruitment of teacher candidates should receive every possible support and encouragement.

4. CEC should seek to consolidate its efforts in the professional standards field with other professional organizations, since unilateral action is likely to be abortive. Accreditation efforts should be channeled through a single national accrediting body. CEC should establish every useful means of collaboration with NCATE and TEPS.

As phrased by Dr. Darland, the essential question in this entire field is "how does a profession guarantee continued professional performance and ethical behavior by its members?" Possible answers to this question are not simple or easily found. The above summary makes it clear that CEC members, at least those attending the convention, expect the Council to put real thrust into its long-developing professional standards movement.

PHOTO BY CARL PURCELL, NEA

EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN is pleased to carry this personal report on its first publisher and editor

A biographical sketch of . . .

HARLEY Z WOODEN

as observed and recorded by John Tenny

REFLECTING on their past associations with Harley Z Wooden, some of those who knew him and his work best have commented:

"In September, 1930, a quiet spoken young man stood up in front of the new Ann J. Kellogg (School) staff and talked of his plans and dreams for the special education center. . . the finest in the United States."

"I well remember the days you spent with such a 'greenhorn' when I first came to Ann J. Kellogg. You really gave me a college education in a few months."

"As I look back to our years together in the (Michigan) State Department and your great contribution to the Michigan School for the Deaf, I find in them great satisfaction. No matter what the problem was, I could always count on you. Some people seem to be born with that kind of integrity and you are one of them."

"For eleven years you provided professional leadership to us (Staff—Michigan School for Deaf) and yet remained intimately concerned with the pupils and with us as individuals."

"I cannot tell you how much I appreciate your quiet and thoughtful cooperation in each and every matter that I have brought to you."

"You are pre-eminent as a leader in this field."

". . . . There the white-haired Big Chief Wooden
Nursed his tribe of office Indians,
Rocked them with his sense of humor,
Bedded them with gentle patience,
Safely led them by his conduct, . . ."

These quoted excerpts from some of the two-hundred-fifty letters of appreciation and best wishes, presented to Harley at the thirty-ninth annual international convention of the Council at Detroit, provide a characterization of him and a hint of his career in special education. They were selected from letters by staff members both at the Ann J. Kellogg School in Battle Creek and at the Michigan School for the Deaf in Flint, by the superintendent

• JOHN W. TENNY is General Advisor in the Department of Special Education and Vocational Rehabilitation at Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan.

of the Michigan Department of Public Instruction during Harley's years with that agency, by the president of CEC, by the head of a prominent national organization concerned with the welfare of handicapped children, and finally by the CEC central office staff.

Boyhood in Michigan

Harley was born near Hastings, Michigan, long enough ago to merit this as his second retirement. We skip over the years of his boyhood assuming that he roamed the hills and waterways of his native state, collected his quota of bird's nests, arrowheads, and other items dear to a small boy's heart. He no doubt took apart and reassembled the usual number of alarm clocks and later Model T Fords and broke a few adolescent feminine hearts along the way.

Prior to 1919 he had served in the Army and attended Michigan State Normal College at Ypsilanti, presently known as Eastern Michigan University. It was here that he came under the influence of Charles M. Elliott before this pioneer professor had started his career in special education. Harley recalls that Professor Elliott in his courses in educational psychology was much interested in the individual differences in children and gave many assignments related to their exceptionalities.

Upon his discharge from the Army in 1919, Harley married Dorothy, his college sweetheart, and became principal and later superintendent at Sebewaing, in the thumb of Michigan on Saginaw Bay. The years 1924 to 1929 found him serving as superintendent of schools at Butler, Indiana.

During his graduate study in school administration at Columbia University in 1929-30 and in previous summer sessions, Harley augmented his course work with research projects in special education in nearby public school systems. He visited various national and international, public and private agencies and organizations interested in the education of exceptional children, studied their programs, and attended institutes sponsored by some of them. He also visited and studied the methods used by leading residential and day schools and rehabilitation centers throughout the U.S. and Canada. His course work, supplemented by these extra-curricular studies in special education, served as a foundation for his participation in a 1930 survey of the Panama Canal Zone Schools—his responsibility being a study of, and recommendations on, services for exceptional children.

Upon the completion of the survey of the Canal Zone Schools, Harley became principal of the Ann J. Kellogg School in Battle Creek in the fall of 1930. This model school contributed by W. K. Kellogg in memory of his mother was designed primarily as a special education center for the city, but built sufficiently large to accommodate the non-handicapped elementary and Junior high pupils of the neighborhood. The school lacked nothing in terms of 1930 standards to facilitate the care and education of exceptional children and created tremendous national and international interest. Fine as the physical plant was, "the quiet spoken young man" standing before his staff realized that a school was more than a splendid building and that plans and dreams could come to fruition only by giving a 'greenhorn' "a college education in a few months" and perhaps by breaking a few traditions.

One of these traditions was the existing concept of the segregated special education classroom for the exceptional child. To Harley, the whole school and the community were his classroom. Integration of the exceptional with the non-handicapped in a sound and practical way had a new and energetic proponent. The community, through its professional groups and service clubs, was much involved in the school program. Diagnostic and clinical services were developed to a high degree and service clubs participated in community surveys to help assure that finding and screening processes were at a high level.

Special Education Director

After seven years in Battle Creek, Harley went to the Michigan Department of Public Instruction in 1937, first as director of special education and then as first assistant superintendent of public instruction. Later he became superintendent of the Michigan School for the Deaf at Flint. In this position he made many improvements in the physical plant and even more significantly in the educational program and social life of the pupils. In cooperation with the Flint schools and community, association of the deaf pupils with the hearing was vigorously fostered and many older pupils were enabled to return to their home community schools. He also started the combined parent institute and nursery school program at the School, bringing

parents and their deaf infants to the campus for parent orientation and to facilitate, for the children, their ultimate entrance into special education either in their home communities or the State school.

In 1950 after thirty years of public school service, Harley retired to assume the position as executive secretary of the International Council for Exceptional Children. This was the assumption of no strange and new task. He had been a most active pioneer in early Council development, and, by privately starting the journal, in 1934, he had given the Council its most cohesive influence. A Council newsletter had been previously published, but the new "International COUNCIL for Exceptional Children REVIEW" was a much more formal medium of communication and vehicle for professional articles on special education and exceptionality. The name was changed to "Journal for Exceptional Children" in 1935, a name which persisted until 1951, when it became "Exceptional Children." Perhaps the most startling aspect to 1961 readers would be the 1934 bargain rate of a Council membership and a journal subscription for one "hard to come by" depression dollar.

Desires Book Burning

The first issue was largely devoted to a report of the international convention of the Council held in Toronto. A souvenir reprinting of all or part of this issue has much to commend it even though Harley, as he views the improvements in the journal and its professional articles, has expressed a desire for a "book burning" of early issues. As the sleek "Ford Galaxie" of today has replaced the "Model T" of yesterday, so has "Exceptional Children" replaced the "Review" but "what a car" was the Model T and "what a journal," the Review. Without it there probably would have been no "Exceptional Children." For many years the journal was published by Harley's individual efforts and financial resources. The fact that the Council finally reimbursed Harley for his financial outlay and purchased the journal, and that other editors—Lord, Garrison, and McCormick—have made their contributions, only serves to magnify Harley's own contribution.

The characteristics of the quiet young man with plans and dreams in Battle Creek persisted in the older young man who took the Council into the National Education Association building in Washington in 1950. Few Council members of 1961 will ever appreciate the unassuming "behind the scenes" activities of Harley to make the Council a respected member of the NEA family, but this he did. As one Council member has so aptly said, "Harley never sought or allowed himself to be in the limelight." Such a characteristic, if accompanied by intelligent purpose and determination, pays dividends. We in the Council are collecting the dividends today. Harley's dividends include a modest measure of satisfaction in the Council and the journal and the expressions of appreciation from Council members and others concerned with exceptional children. At the 1961 international convention of the Council in Detroit, some two-hundred-fifty bound letters of appreciation and best wishes were presented to Harley along with a few more material gifts. These letters voiced the appreciation of thousands of Council members and friends.

Admittedly Harley's professional life was time consuming, and a bulging briefcase accompanied him to and from home each day. He has managed, however, to enjoy a comfortable home life with Dorothy, three lovely daughters and now three "sons," and six fine grandchildren. Inasmuch as two of these young families live in Michigan, they were able to share with Harley and Dorothy the appreciation luncheon, sponsored by CEC and the Michigan Federated Chapters in Detroit on Saturday, April eighth. They were: Beatrice and John W. Wright of Mt. Clemens, whose daughter, Anne, a junior at Michigan State University, is the oldest grandchild; and Jean and Lewis Compton and two children of Bay City. Present in spirit were Phyllis and Gilbert Kiefer of Sheringham, Great Britain, and their two children, the youngest of whom is six month old Tracy Lee. The British Tourist Bureau is banking on this wee one to bring Harley and Dorothy on a vacation trip to England, but friends are depending upon the Michigan roots of the daughters to bring them back home eventually.

Harley will continue for a few months in a part-time capacity for the Council in Washington. Everyone wishes Harley and Dorothy a happy retirement, but all realize that a happy retirement for Harley will involve some continued service to exceptional children.

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Conceptual Issues in the Development of a Taxonomy for Special Education

THOMAS E. JORDAN

ONE of the trends of the last several years has been an increasing dissatisfaction with the naiveté of work in disciplines concerned with the welfare of children (Siegel, 1956). This dissatisfaction is due to the lack of an adequate rationale for methods of instruction and child study. In all young disciplines there is a period when precedent and simple utilitarianism suffice as explanations. This soon passes as people acquire enough experience to view their work in perspective, and feel sufficiently secure to ask if there is a better way. There generally is a better way, and is found by programmed refinement of existing knowledge rather than by the serendipity which characterized the first defensible procedures.

This general observation applies to all fields of knowledge and is equally applicable to special education. It is no longer adequate to use precedent as a rationale for our practices. It is no longer defensible to ignore advances in disciplines continuous with special education. Programmed research in the behavioral sciences has much to tell us, much to show. Increasingly, experimental evidence demonstrates the relevance of conceptual thinking and research to current practice. For example, Rosenstein's (1960) studies of the deaf clearly dictate some changes in the thinking of educators. Beliefs hoary with age and hallowed by precedent do not always stand the light of critical thinking, and "the best current thinking" may be firmly grounded in error. What is needed is examination of our beliefs about handicapped children in a systematic fashion, substituting detached scholarship for the clichés. Two examples will illustrate the heart of the matter. The first is from one of the disciplines dealing with children, the other from the history of science.

1. Child study is approached by contemporary home economists in light of some of the most advanced thinking of the 1920's. At a recent meeting with some thirty to forty deans of schools of home economics the writer was cautioned to remember "the whole child" (as if one could forget him) and to "study him" (meaning naive observation with no perception of the methodological problems involved). At the same time a child-development specialist from a major center of study attempted to transmit his ideas and found little basis for communication. It is submitted that home economists influence child care practices very greatly. What a tragedy if their leaders should be incapable of responding to new findings. Their lack of responsiveness may be an inability to think in an idiom now current, and thirty years beyond their own. Their thinking was firmly grounded in the idiom of the 1920's isolating them from contemporary thought.

2. A historical example of refinement of thought by conceptualization may be considered. It is an example of a very serious medical problem yielding to better conceptualization:

Over the centuries scurvy was the sailor's worst enemy. Neither storms nor battles incapacitated as many men as did this vitamin deficiency. The crucial work on this disease was performed by James Lind (1753), the Scottish physician. Consider "the best current thinking" just prior to Lind's publication of *A Treatise of the Scurvy* in 1753. Gideon Harvey, physician to Charles II, considered the disease as follows; "preliminary, liminary, recent, inveterate or terminative." He described "a mouth scurvy, leg scurvy, joint scurvy, an asthmatic

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scurvy, a rheumatic scurvy, a diarrheous scurvy, an emetic or vomiting scurvy, a flatulent hypochondriac scurvy, a cutaneous scurvy, an ulcerous scurvy. . ." and so on. Lind proceeded to reduce the number of entities to one, a single disease, and demonstrated the requisite cure, lime-juice.

Progress Based on Thinking

Now what have these two examples to offer special education. The first example illustrates the danger of a discipline, indifferent to new ideas, finding itself unable to communicate with the mainstream of thought about child behavior and growth. The second illustrates that "the best current thinking" is never a protection against what is wrong, and what is later shown to be patently so. A third comment is in order. Special educators need to realize that progress is based on thinking. Thinking which leads to progress in a discipline is usually a self-conscious attempt to analyze the form and structure of knowledge. Today we need to impose form and structure on what we know about handicapped children. Merely citing precedent and popular prejuduce will not result in progress; it will merely result in a good deal of satisfaction.

Over the years much of the difficulty in educating handicapped children developed because we knew very little about them. We were not sure what was wrong with them, or we did not know how they felt, how they were motivated, or their limitations. Advances in education during the last decades have remedied this situation. In most cases we can find a medical opinion about a child and there are some handicapped students on whom we have rather bulky folders full of medical and psychological information.

It would be interesting to make a blind comparison of children, guessing which youngsters had been studied in detail by scientific personnel, using the manner of instruction and the technique of teaching as the clue. In all probability we could not distinguish between the children with elaborate histories and those without them, at least on the basis of how they were taught. Put another way, we may say that a mass of clinical data about handicapped children does not necessarily mean they will receive better instruction.

There are several ways to explain this. The least useful is to say that special teachers are indifferent to the welfare of their children and ignore much useful information. A more sensible comment is to ask if the information gathered by doctors, psychologists, social workers, and the like has any bearing on the enterprise of teaching. Current practices suggest that information may not say anything to teachers, that there is a breakdown in the communication of information from one discipline to another.

It would be naive to think that communication problems consist of one party in a discussion not knowing all the big words that the other party uses. The matter is more complicated than that. What is at the heart of the difficulty is the lack of conventions about what matters should be raised. This is far more difficult than the matter of big words. We may ask the question, "what needs to be known about a child by any professional person?" What are the categories, if you please, that basically define the functioning child?

The Functioning Child

Important aspects of children's functioning may be identified as follows:

Somatic. This term refers to those instructionally significant factors which reflect (e.g.) neuromotor problems, or the problems of accommodating an amputee to the instructional process. A problem which will illustrate an item not in this category would be a metabolic disease such as those receiving attention in the literature of mental retardation. Folling's Disease,[1] Maple Sugar Disease, or Oast-house disease. This is because such physical considerations are the irrelevant substratum to educational functioning.

Intellectual. The diseases just mentioned probably produce intellectual behavior which is relevant to educational processes. Children with Folling's Disease are commonly mentally retarded. Certainly the intellectual behavior of children is relevant to instruction, and should be handled in a taxonomy.

Behavioral. To use the metabolic diseases for a third time, Folling's Disease produces abnormal behavior. It really does not matter what the disease is, but the hyperirritability and motoric excitement which occur in this and other diseases do matter. The disease underlying the behavior is irrelevant, since we do not cope with a medical entity but with its behavioral consequences, and, also, several diseases may produce similar behavior.

[1] Sometimes referred to as phenylketonuria.

Communicative disorders are the disturbed processes of expressive and receptive language. Aphasia is often considered a 'symbolic' disorder, but operationally it is either a disruption of expressive or receptive communication.

These categories do not avoid all problems, but they may facilitate communication. People in various coteries may still consider stuttering a neurotic problem (behavioral), or a phenomenal problem (communicative), or the result of an irritable nervous system (somatic). Whatever their formulation, it would be clear by their choice of terms.

A further advantage is that we can state the functional precedence of handicaps. To speak of a mentally retarded, physically handicapped child is to use syntactic precedence to communicate children's problems. The use of four categories with the convention of functional precedence can eliminate much confusion.

A final observation is conceptual. Two decades ago the theoretician J. R. Kantor (1942) pointed out the need to make sure that there is no hiatus between constructs and the events to which they relate. The four categories described seem to observe that stricture.

It is important to realize that a conceptual issue has just been introduced into the discussion. There are several reasons for this: first, a taxonomy is a conceptual model of a substantive area, of a body of knowledge; second, a taxonomy cannot be developed on the basis of naive realism; third, a taxonomy must permit manipulation of knowledge in such a fashion as to elucidate relationships not immediately apparent in the primary data; and fourth, a taxonomy must act as the formal language of an area, much as mathematics is the formal language of physics and the natural sciences.

To elucidate, a taxonomy is a conceptual model of a substantive area. It reflects in its categories either a broad or a narrow range of concerns. Being a classification system it rejects and accepts items for consideration. It is a model that either has or has not a place to incorporate certain salient factors. If the framework is insufficient it will exclude vital matters.

The Utility of the System

A taxonomy must be developed with great care. Perhaps the matter that gives the greatest procedural difficulty in the end is the utility of the system. One thing which militates against utility is an endless list of categories. We need to apply Occam's Razor, the principle of Parsimony, to our taxonomy. It is appropriate to recall Lind's (1753) work: " . . . it was found necessary to expunge all such terms as were contrived to give an air of wisdom to the imperfections of knowledge." The easiest way to break that rule is to simply start listing items that should be recorded. This is seen in the studies of parent-child, or teacher-child interaction when interminable lists of such descriptive terms as "hostility," "cooperation," "affection," and the like are compiled. These are then used to record and evaluate behavior. Perhaps the best advice is to set up criteria for judging the inclusiveness, the consistency, the coherence, and the construct validity of the terms employed.

A taxonomy is helpful if it helps us do things that are otherwise impossible. One such value is the need to describe relationships that are not obvious to the simple observer. A taxonomy should be a research tool, a technique for describing and communicating the processes of instruction in special education. It should help us understand how and why learning takes place (Wright, 1959).

If we were to compare growth in the various branches of knowledge it would be clear that the natural sciences have advanced further than most others. In considering why this is so it is well to compare their present form with their historical form. Mathematics, for example, began with the simple proposition that one needs to keep track of the number of one's progeny. It no doubt moved along to keeping track of arrows when man was a hunter, and to the length of building materials when he became an artisan. Today simple mensuration has been replaced by a wholly conceptual

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mathematics which deals with non-representational matters, and probes relationships in a fashion quite impossible when we deal with the "practical." This is possible because the number two or the quantity *X* is not restricted to two children, or *X* paces. Number is used in a theoretical, or to choose a less invidious word, conceptual, sense. Number is used as a formal language, as a set of notations ultimately reducible to reality, but used to escape the limitations of the here and now, used to permit the imagination to deal with things outside of the accident of a particular place and a particular moment.

A taxonomy of special education should have the value of allowing us to leave the problem of what to do about a given child's problems in favor of grasping the heart of similar children's problems. In this way a taxonomy can help us solve our difficulties much as a problem expressed as an algebraic problem can be solved for more than one factor. In this fashion a formal language allows us to grow beyond the stage that accumulated knowledge would indicate. It is no accident that we say it takes four years to train a teacher and five years to make one. What we are really saying is that we can transmit just so much knowledge to a would-be teacher—there are vital matters that simply cannot be communicated to the beginner. Put another way we can say that there are items of knowledge that cannot be codified or transmuted in such a fashion that we can phrase meaningful, communicable statements. In terms of this discussion we may say that we have not been able to handle the accumulated wisdom of a master-teacher's experience. The reason, one might argue, is that there is no formal language available to the teacher and the student, there is no set of terms that are adequate to codify, to express, to manipulate the information. To use Bruner's (1957) expression, taxonomy of special education should permit us to go beyond the information given.

Applied Considerations

The assumption on which this presentation rests is that a taxonomy of special education is a practical tool. As an example we may consider the problem of educating emotionally disturbed children. This particular practical problem is chosen because of the attention currently being given to the matter. Also, it is a good example of how not to go about developing an educational schema. At the moment, the education of emotionally disturbed children consists of a series of acts which are justified by either the criterion of precedent, or by the accident of the discipline under whose auspices the problem is placed by an omniscient state legislature. It can be either psychiatrically endorsed babysitting until the play-therapist arrives, or it may be quasi-normal instruction under the care of a motherly, non-neurotic teacher.

Looking to the future, and asking the question, "where do we turn next?," we may see a little light if we try to use a taxonomic approach. One of the functions of a taxonomy is the reduction of data to basic, irreducible terms in data language. In this fashion the path for educating emotionally disturbed children may be laid out by converting psychiatric terms and data into educational terms and data. Since this is a preliminary analysis, and is not intended to be the solution of this problem, let us take the least educationally responsive child, an autistic child. Our task here is to make statements in the same data language about an autistic child as a psychiatric problem, and an instructional problem. For reasons best discussed elsewhere we will use contemporary behavioral theory as the data language.

The psychiatric feature of an autistic child is the "aloneness." The youngster has object rather than person relationships. Educationally, the child simply does not make progress. The hiatus which causes much of our difficulty is the lack of articulation between what the psychiatrist knows and what the teacher does.

Viewed taxonomically, and using a specific data language, we might say that the problem should be formulated as one of interaction. Very briefly, interactions are contingent when one person's behavior produces changes in that of the other. When there is no give and take we say there is asymmetric contingency, or non-contingency. The autistic child's problem is that his chief attribute in either educational or psychiatric settings is a lack of contingent behavior. He does not learn when the teacher teaches, he does not communicate when the therapist attempts to understand him. At the risk of blunting Occam's razor we might say there is no "initiation of structure," in his role behavior.

Now what has this discourse on the autistic child

done? It has not given a pedagogy for the autistic child. That would be beyond the scope, though not the implications, of this article. What it has done is to describe a behavior pattern, or a segment of it, in a language which can be applied to two disciplines. It has provided a *lingua franca* for psychiatry and education; it has described a problem in a fashion which is common to two disciplines. Secondly, it has related the emotional disability of a child to the emotional handicap of a learner. It has put in psychiatric data and produced educational data. The fact that it was possible to do this demonstrates the care to be used in choosing a data language. If the idiom worked for some conditions, but not for others, we might have a way of distinguishing those conditions which are disabilities in the organic sense, from those which are handicaps in the functional sense. For example, it is probable that colorblindness, an obvious disability, does not produce any meaningful data in interbehavior. If it did, it would be a problem requiring our sustained attention as educators. Failing that, it would not be a handicapping condition.

Another applied consideration is the value of a simple taxonomy as an aid in communication. A practical problem in instruction is deciding what to do with children who have several handicaps. Which handicap is functionally most important? Where shall we start? A third matter arises when we ponder whether a child should be placed in a special class on the basis of his motor handicap or his sensory handicap, or his intellectual handicap. A taxonomy can help solve these problems.

Recently Willenberg (1961) discussed safety matters affecting handicapped children. His approach was to develop a taxonomic model of factors in the external environment—modifiers—and factors in the internal environment—things to be modified. By plotting these items two-dimensionally he indicated certain conclusions that applied to three sorts of handicaps.

I should like to offer a third area of taxonomic endeavor. This is the understanding of factors affecting vocational success in the period after special instruction. A taxonomy of instruction is not necessarily applicable to post-instructional matters. In some ways there are common elements, but there are some significant differences. It is

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much like using a checker-board to play chess. The board is the same, by analogy the ecology of home and community, but there are different strategies and some extra ploys.

Figure 1 shows some elements on which post-school life may depend. *Intellect* is the same as in the instructional period, but its relevance decreases. *Concepts* of self, the world, and work, emerge as salient matters. *Motives* vary: *achievement motivation* is probably still important, and new motives, *affiliation, power, money, advancement,* and *level of occupation* emerge. *Skills* refers to motor and perceptual abilities. In the post-school success-and-failure of the cerebral palsied, discrete abilities are important. Of equal importance may be what is referred to as *intermodal* skills, the input through one system and output through another: hand-eye, ear-hand-eye, for example. *Communication* acquires a new significance when we consider that young people may have been taught by people who could grasp the intent of students with poor propositional speech. As barriers are dissolved by communication they are erected by inability to give and receive ideas. The only occupation that is exempt from this consideration is probably that of lighthouse keeper. Were this choice, or a comparable one available it might well represent flight from reality into minority status, a step contrary to the spirit of all previous special education endeavors.

			FAVORABLE	IRRELEVANT	UNFAVORABLE
INTELLECT	a. verbal b. non-verbal				
CONCEPTS	a. work b. world c. self				
SKILLS	a. motor b. perceptual c. intermodal				
MOTIVES	a. occupational level b. money c. affiliation d. advancement e. independence				
COMMUNICATION	Expressive	a. oral b. written			
	Receptive	a. oral b. written			

Figure 1

It is unrealistic to relate all abilities to all occupations, and such an attempt would vitiate a taxonomy. For this reason we may consider three terms that apply selectively. *Irrelevant* would describe the application of colorblindness (see *skills*) to many tasks. On the other hand, serious hearing loss (see *communication*) might be favorable in places where a high background of noise is disruptive, in fact where a disability is no handicap. *Unfavorable* would describe the everyday limitations imposed on the special education graduate choosing an occupation.

Summary

- A comprehensive taxonomy is needed. This article has discussed two miniature and overlapping structures and commented on a third, that of Willenberg.
- The development of a comprehensive taxonomy will occur when special education has developed a comprehensive data language.
- Curriculum can acquire construct validity, as opposed to the face validity of many current procedures when it employs taxonomic refinements.
- A taxonomy is a device to solve practical problems; it is also a conceptual model, and so emphasizes the comprehensive needs of special education theory.
- A comprehensive taxonomy can restore what has been lost since the demise of Herbart, the unity of theory and practice. It can further lead to a sophisticated pedagogy. This in turn has implications for the increased professionalization of practitioners in special education.

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Typewriting Instruction

For Partially Seeing and Blind Children

EDITH COHOE

TYPEWRITING is an important way in which the visually impaired child can compensate for his handicap. Since his eyes are not essential in typewriting, his speed of writing can be equivalent to that of a normal child; in fact, it may be faster. Then he need not spend more time than other children in completing school assignments, and any frustration he may have experienced in script writing, or in Braille writing, is eliminated.

There are very few publications which present specific methods of typewriting instruction for the visually handicapped. This is surprising in view of the fact that elementary grade visually handicapped children in all parts of the country have been taught typewriting for many years. Typewriting should be encouraged for the partially seeing because it reduces the amount of close eye work, and much of the material is presented orally by the teacher or by means of records or tapes. For the blind child, it is a means of written communication with the seeing, not only with his teachers and classmates in school, but also with his friends outside of school.

Typewriting aids visually handicapped children with all school subjects involving written communication. For example, typing spelling words promotes vocabulary growth of the partially seeing child because he obtains a clear image of the word he writes. Typewriting in spelling again promotes the vocabulary growth of the blind child because he associates the letters in the proper order.

It is the purpose of this article to describe adaptations and adjustments of ordinary typewriting to the needs of the visually handicapped. These are necessary if the elementary grade visually handicapped child is to typewrite successfully. This article is organized under the following topics: Background Information About the Child, General Approach to Typewriting, Preparing the Child for Typewriting, Developing Skills and Procedures, and Encouraging Original Typewriting.

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Background Information About the Child

Recent surveys made by teachers of the visually handicapped in the Detroit Public Schools indicate that the great majority of visually limited children are ready to learn typewriting when they reach the fourth grade. The introduction of typewriting, as reported by the teachers, increases the children's interest as well as their progress in the language arts. However, some children are ready to type by the time they reach the third grade, while a few may not type successfully before entering the fifth. Poor muscle control and coordination retard readiness for typing.

Certain important data should be obtained by the teacher before introducing the child to the typewriter. The teacher should be familiar with the child's school records and reports, including his physical condition. The teacher should also be well acquainted with the specialist's report of the child's eye condition, particularly with the diagnosis, percentage of corrected vision, and the recommended extent of eye use. Such records, along with the teacher's own observation, will show that some children are able to do considerable copy work from large-type books. Other children, such as those with nystagmus, or those who see only through the center of the lens, may experience difficulty in keeping their place while reading the copy even though they have adequate vision. Still others are unable

to see even the large-type and shouldn't be expected to copy it.

Material to be copied should be large and clear enough for the child to read with ease. It should be placed on a copyholder at eye level. Except for those children with albinism or aniridia, adequate light, well distributed and diffused, should be provided.

General Approach to Typewriting

Partially seeing children who are unable to read ordinary print should be supplied with typewriters which have standard keyboards but large or bulletin type (18 point)[1] and heavily inked ribbons in order to make their work clearly visible. Blind pupils usually learn typewriting on machines with pica type. Electric typewriters are recommended, especially for young children and for those who have crippling conditions, because the keys respond to the slightest touch and the carriage return is electrically operated.

Children in the lowest classification of partial sight may need to use the same procedures as the totally blind. The blind, of necessity, must rely completely on typing from dictation, tapes, records, and Braille materials. Dictation work must be emphasized with all visually handicapped children. In dictation the teacher's voice should be clear and distinct. He should speak at a speed suited to the material. For example, drill activity can be presented faster than paragraph dictation.

A blind child reads his rough draft in Braille while typing a finished composition.

Preparing the Child For Typewriting

Pupils should be taught the parts of the typewriter as they use them. The blind child will first need to examine the machine and have adequate time to learn the separate parts. Teacher demonstration is very important. The first lessons should include identifying and locating rows of keys, space bar, line-space lever, cylinder, margin sets, paper guide, and paper release.

Before using the typewriter, the child must know how to set the machine and insert the paper, the correct position to assume at the typewriter, and how to find the home keys without looking. This information can be obtained from any standard typing manual.

The procedure for getting the machine ready to type is outlined in the Detroit Teacher's Guide for Typewriting. The pupils should be taught to twirl the cylinder knob with a quick movement of the first and second fingers, thumb and wrist. Partially seeing children should soon learn to bring the right hand to the cylinder knob as the left hand is inserting the paper into the machine.

The position of the child at the machine is extremely important in learning to type. The correct position will do more than any other single factor to insure proper typing habits. In this connection, there is a definite advantage in providing children with adjustable typewriter desks and adjustable chairs.

Developing Skills and Procedures

Visually handicapped children will require more definite, as well as more gradual, instruction than the normal. Starting with the first lesson, the teacher should encourage good habits with regard to position at the machine, stroking, and accuracy so that these habits will become automatic and the child can devote his energies to learning new skills. The teacher should give directions clearly and as slowly as necessary, checking to see that these are understood and followed. During practice periods this necessitates that the teacher give full attention to observing, correcting, and assisting the children. The pupils should not be permitted to do unsupervised typing unless the teacher is certain they will

[1] Several typewriter companies manufacture machines with large or bulletin type (18 point) and standard keyboard. For information contact your local typewriter company.

follow the correct procedures.

Authorities agree that progress is faster under daily instruction. When the child is taught only two or three days a week, there is less rapid advancement. For young, beginning children a practice period of ten to fifteen minutes is long enough. When the fatigue point is reached, practice should cease.

Work papers should have a definite form. For example, they should contain the child's name, lesson number, and date. Errors should also be indicated. Partially seeing children should find and circle their errors. Blind children usually know when they have made an error and can tell the teacher. The child's papers should be kept in an individual folder.

Introducing Letters and Words. The teacher should call the strokes as the pupils type new letters and words. The children usually type one line of letters or words as the teacher calls them off three or four times. For example, "fgjh space," "fgjh space," etc. Then they type one more line using the same procedure. At times the pupils may call the strokes with the teacher.

The teacher will need to show the pupils how to type by demonstrating on the machine frequently, using short, sharp strokes. This enables the children to hear the rhythm of proper stroking. In addition, musical records[2] are available to assist in typing to rhythm. Children enjoy this supplementary avenue of learning.

Many children need extra practice in returning the carriage. They may be taught to place the left hand with the fingers bracing one another on the carriage return lever as they move it. By the time the carriage reaches the right side of the machine, the hand should be back in position.

The procedure used in teaching letters and words is also used for numbers and symbols. The child should be helped to develop facility in typing numbers as well as letters. He should be taught to strike marks of punctuation lightly so as not to perforate the paper.

Caring for the Machine. As the children learn to type, they should be taught how to care for the machine. The teacher should show the pupils how to change the ribbon; ribbons should be changed

A partially seeing girl refers to large-type copy at eye level as she uses the typewriter.

two or three times a semester, or before the type becomes light. As previously mentioned, heavily-inked ribbons should be provided for the partially seeing.

Children should learn to treat the typewriter with respect, realizing that it is expensive equipment. When they have trouble, such as jamming of the keys, they should stop and tell the teacher. The typewriter must be in good working condition. Typewriter service should be available as needed, at least on a weekly basis.

Making Full Use of the Machine. The teacher should help the children to know and use all parts of the machine. For example, as soon as the child can write a paragraph, show him how to indent by using the tabulator key or bar. When he has learned all the letters of the keyboard, assign paragraphs from reading, spelling, or social studies commensurate with his vocabulary. He should use the tabulator key to type his spelling words in columns. Many of the partially seeing children will use large-type books when copying; the blind will use records or tapes and some Braille material. In addition, all pupils should do much typing from dictation.

The foregoing steps will make typing a tool which the child can use with ease and satisfaction in doing assignments for most of his classes, especially social studies, science, and the language arts. He should have this skill before entering junior high school. In this connection, correct erasing procedure should be learned, but erasing should not be permitted in typewriting lessons. One or two erasures are usual-

[2] For example, Typewriting Rhythm Records, Gregg Publishing Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc.

ly permitted in letters or reports.

Time Tests. When time tests are first used, the pupils should memorize the word, phrase, or sentence to be typed. Words are usually typed for a half-minute or a minute; phrases and sentences for one, two, or three minutes. Later formal time tests will be introduced and the pupils can calculate their scores by means of the number of strokes, gross words, errors, correct words, and rate. The pupil can compete with himself, as well as with others, in improving his accuracy and increasing his speed.

Encouraging Original Typewriting

The children must have a good mastery of the keyboard before they are able to compose at the typewriter. If the teacher emphasizes original or creative work, they will be encouraged to think as they type. Thinking may be promoted by asking easily answered questions and having the pupils type their answers in complete sentences. The following are some good, beginning questions: What is your full name? Where were you born? What are your favorite subjects? Also, the children may be asked to type a description.

When first doing original work such as a composition, partially seeing pupils will make a rough draft on the typewriter, correct it in pencil, and then make the final draft. If the pupils used triple spacing in their rough draft, they will have more room to make corrections. Blind pupils do the rough draft on the Braillewriter. After corrections are made, the final draft is typed. As the children progress, they should acquire such facilitity that they can gradually do away with their need for making rough drafts for short compositions.

Letter writing should be emphasized. The pupil should be taught the three accepted methods of typing personal notes and business letters: block style with open punctuation, modified block style with open punctuation, and modified block style with paragraph indentions and mixed punctuation. With blind pupils letter writing should receive much emphasis since this is their only means of written communication with their seeing friends.

At first the children will need to consult a letter placement table in order to know where to place their letter on the page. Later, by knowing the length of the letter, they can estimate its correct placement. As in composing at the typewriter, beginning pupils may do a rough draft of the letter and correct it before typing the final copy.

They will need specific directions for folding the letter. A neatly folded letter requires considerable practice. Beginning pupils must also have definite instruction for addressing the envelopes and centering the address. They will later center the address by starting the name just below the middle of the envelope and left of the center, five to seven spaces, depending on the machine being used.

Teachers Checklist

Following is a check list for the use of the teacher:

1. Be well prepared. Have a thorough understanding of each lesson before attempting to present it. This will often mean doing the lesson yourself.
2. Teach the children to listen carefully to directions.
3. Give directions clearly and as slowly as needed; then check to see that they are understood and followed.

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4. Do much demonstrating at the machine to develop proper stroking and rhythm and to conduct drills.
5. Check the machine to see whether the child has set it correctly before beginning to type.
6. Check these points of posture: the back is straight, leaning forward slightly, the feet are flat on the floor, one foot in front of the other, and the head is erect.
7. Check the hand and arm position: the arms are almost motionless, the elbows are relaxed and close to the body, the hands following the slant of the keyboard, and the fingers are curved.
8. Check the machine manipulation: the carriage is thrown with a zip, the rhythm is good, the typing, spacing, and shifting are smooth, the stroking is sharp and with a quick release, and the fingering is always correct.
9. Give finger and hand exercises for relaxation and for tired muscles.
10. Watch for the child's fatigue point and stop when it is reached.
11. Show the children how to care for the typewriter and change the ribbon. Leave the mechanics of the typewriter to the service department.
12. Consult with typewriting teachers; supplement and enrich your work with regular grade typing materials and guides.
13. Confer with regular grade teachers to be certain that the child's typing papers are following the correct form.

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Highlighting

Programs for the Mentally Retarded in Denmark and Holland

DARRELL A. HINDMAN

AN opportunity to visit institutions for the mentally retarded and State Departments in Denmark and Holland both before, and following, the London Conference on the Scientific Study of Mental Deficiency July 24-29, 1960, was a real privilege. A sincere attempt was made to understand the basic philosophies underlying the program for the mentally retarded in these countries in order to appreciate the differences between their programs and our own.

Many similarities and some differences were noted in the programming for the mentally retarded of Holland and Denmark as compared with those of the United States. Regardless of the differences in programming which exist, however, certain basic problems relating to mental retardation are common to all countries. There are still too few institutions to house all those who need care, and although new facilities are constantly being built, waiting lists are still in evidence. The shortage of qualified personnel in the various disciplines and areas concerned with the welfare of the retarded is another major problem.

Denmark's Mentally Retarded

The care of the mentally retarded in Denmark is the responsibility of the Danish government with the administration thereof undertaken by boards appointed by the Minister of Social Affairs. These social boards have been established in each community and, in addition to handling the problems of the mentally retarded, are also responsible for other duties such as action concerning old age pensions and social insurance.

The basic philosophy in Denmark is that the family is the most important unit and retarded children are left in the home if at all possible. Nearly all costs of institutionalization are paid by the state; however, if a family can, they may pay a maximum of about one-third of a dollar per day. About 90% of the families do not contribute financially to the care of their institutionalized children.

As a comparison it is interesting to note that research in our own country has shown that while state governments assume most of the financial responsibility, the principle of shared financial responsibility between state governments and parents and/or local governmental units is also evident.

The number of mentally defective individuals in Denmark may be estimated at approximately one percent of the population, or 45,000. Of this number, 18,000 are under public care, with half in institutions which include smaller homes and schools, while the remainder are under supervised family care.

Denmark is divided into two administrative districts. One district encompasses the islands including Copenhagen while the peninsula of Jutland makes up the other district. Within each district there are three central institutions ranging in size from 700 to 1,800 patients. In addition there are three boarding schools, 10 to 15 smaller schools and a large number of small private nursing homes. The state eventually hopes to assume the administration of the smaller units. The administrative districts are further subdivided into seven regions with teams in each region which screen all cases of retardation which come to their attention. A social

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worker and a physician are considered to be the leaders of each team.

A central registry of the mentally retarded is maintained in Copenhagen and in the administrative headquarters for the district on Jutland. These registries are considered quite complete and the location of any retarded individual so classified can be determined immediately.

Old and New Institutions

It is interesting to note that although the institutions in Denmark are headed by medical personnel, the Director of Institutions for Care and Treatment of Mental Defectives is an administrator who has no medical training. In the district for which Copenhagen is the administrative center, institutional programs for the mentally retarded are divided into those for children and those for adults, with a psychiatrist in charge of each program. Two new institutions are presently being constructed near Copenhagen. One of these will house only children and the other adults. Apparently the new institutions are being built near Copenhagen in order to take advantage of the availability of superior medical and university facilities. The new institutions will contrast sharply with Andersvaenge, an institution of 700 patients located near a small town 40 miles from Copenhagen.

Although Andersvaenge is not an old institution, one receives the impression of walking through an estate because of the dense shrubbery and carefully tended grounds. Andersvaenge consists of two sections. The first section was built just before the beginning of World War II with nine small pavilions or dormitories, each with room for 25 debile or mildly imbecile patients. The other section was built during post-war years in order to procure space for severely retarded individuals. This latter section consists of two large wards, each with more than 100 beds, and an isolation ward for unruly or psychotic patients.

A farm is maintained at Andersvaenge and male patients receive agricultural training. Training in manual skills is given under the supervision of a therapeutist and excellent work is done in the institution shops. With the use of a special machine, woven wire fencing is made and distributed to other institutions for their use. A small amount of fencing is also sold commercially. Additional articles are made from wood, ivory and metal by the patients, some of which are offered for sale at the institution.

Andersvaenge has a hospital which serves as a receiving ward for the district, and residents are placed in surroundings deemed most suitable for their needs after a period of observation which varies from a few days to several months. The goal of the institution is to achieve resocialization and the ultimate return to the community of the higher level patients, while the more severely retarded usually remain in the institution for the remainder of their lives. Plans for a modern hospital with facilities for special examinations including X-ray, electroencephalography and metabolism have been authorized although construction has been postponed because of the difficult financial situation of the country. Andersvaenge will eventually serve as a psychiatric polyclinic for Western Zealand. In the meantime, however, an excellent relationship has developed between the institution and the community hospital in Slagelse, a nearby town. All the necessary special services are available at this hospital with Andersvaenge paying for services rendered.

Both my visit at Andersvaenge and at two of the sheltered workshops in Copenhagen made me very much aware of the fact that there is considerably more emphasis upon work training in Denmark than on education. A large amount of weaving is done in the sheltered workshops. Many towels and other woven products are sent to other institutions and quite a number sold commercially. The usual types of assembling and packaging operations are carried on by the less skilled workers. There is little evidence of academic teaching at the institution.

Holland's Program

In the Netherlands it is an established tradition that social and educational work, which is so closely linked with spiritual convictions and views of life, should be the concern of the group having the same conviction as the persons to be assisted. The public authorities are called in to help only when their own group falls short in providing the necessary assistance. In general, the actual work is carried out by voluntary organizations and institutions, largely of denominational character, but under the supervision and financial support of the government. This produces the peculiar Dutch phenomenon, not

found anywhere else in the world, of the social services, to a very large extent, being split up on denominational lines.

The municipality is, by law, responsible for providing the necessary care of its residents if it cannot be provided for by themselves or other private sources. Its responsibilities are discharged, to a large extent, by subsidizing voluntary organizations who carry out the work or by paying the fees, either wholly or in part, for those needing assistance.

State organization in Holland is very complicated. Mental health comes within the province of the Public Health Division of the Ministry of Social Affairs and Public Health. This Department has recently concerned itself with the preventive aspects of mental health work, and has subsidized the development of pre- and after-care services and child guidance clinics. Special schools for the mentally retarded are within the province of special education, and function under the guidance of state inspectors for special education. The Ministry of Social Work deals with problem families. An Interdepartmental Committee for Mental Health was set up in 1946 to coordinate the activities of the various departments.

Sheltered Workshops

An outstanding highlight of my stay in Holland was the opportunity to visit the sheltered workshops in the Hague. These workshops are under the direction of the Dr. Schroeder van der Kolk Association. The Association board includes protestant, Catholic and non-denominational representatives, directors of mental hospitals situated in the Hague and surrounding area, representatives of after-care bodies and special elementary schools, industrial, municipal and provincial delegates.

The sheltered workshops provide training for both male and female mentally retarded and mentally ill persons. These workshops are housed in two former school buildings which accommodate 450 individuals, 55% of whom are mentally deficient and 45% who are mentally ill. However, these terms are not used in the workshops—the workers are referred to as "mentally and intellectually handicapped persons."

The goal of the workshop is to educate the workers so that they will be able to compete in the open labor market and, if this is impossible, to develop their capacities as far as possible in order to allow them to take pleasure in their work and increase their self-esteem. This reduces their financial dependency and favorably influences their position in the family.

The tasks which the workers perform range from those which are very simple to those requiring a high degree of skill. The more simple tasks include the assembly of bottle cork tops and cardboard box making. Work requiring a greater degree of skill includes manufacturing tops of gym shoes. This entails a large number of separate processes from cutting of loose threads, edging on electric sewing machines to the final shoe assembling by means of a machine. The assembling of intricate television components is another example of a task requiring considerable skill.

The municipal arrangement for social employment of manual workers applies the system of merit-rating for calculating workshop wages. This arrangement applies only to handicapped persons who are capable of performing at least one-third of expected normal activities. Every three months the quantity and quality of the work performed, zeal, interest, behavior and the way in which the material and the workshop are cared for are taken into consideration. Marks are given for each of these five different aspects of the work and the total determines the amount of the wages. The wages are further influenced by the degree of difficulty of the work involved. The maximum wages of 138 Dutch cents, or 38 cents an hour, is the same as that established by the municipal arrangement for workshops. The minimum wage is 41 Dutch cents or 11 cents an hour.

There is a similar wage arrangement for workers whose capacities are below one-third of the normal and who cannot qualify under the municipal arrangement for social employment. A grant-in-aid is given by the local authorities and the province. Wages for these workers are also fixed according to their capacities and vary from 0 to 50 Dutch cents or 13 cents an hour. Those who reach the maximum wage of this scale pass over to the schedule of the municipal arrangement. Nearly all pupils have a savings card, which is kept by the director, on which a small amount of their wages are deposited. With permission of an advisory psychiatrist a worker may withdraw money. The psychiatrist decides

whether the wages can be paid to the worker himself or whether they will be spent for him.

Typical Institution

Both van den Bergh-Stichting and Hendrik van Boeijen-Oord give the impression of great cleanliness common to both Denmark and Holland generally. I shall briefly mention some of the outstanding features of van den Bergh-Stichting since it is typical of the Dutch institutions. Built in 1924, it presently houses over 1,200 patients in 38 units. The population includes the same varied types of residents found in our own institutions, ranging from severely retarded infants to quite adequate children and adults. In many cases permanent care will be necessary, but emphasis is placed upon treatment and training for return to society whenever possible.

One of the outstanding characteristics of the Dutch institutions is the construction and management of the units which definitely reflects the needs of the residents housed therein. These units accommodate from four to forty patients. The small houses are for those who are almost ready for transfer to sheltered workshops and community care. Nine wards accommodate the residents who are educable. Instead of a school building, each ward contains a classroom in addition to the rooms where the students live, dine, play and sleep. In some instances the teachers are responsible for the supervision of the entire ward, supposedly demonstrating the coordination of instruction and education. Eight cottages make up the "labor village" with 5 boys in each cottage who live here without direct supervision of the staff. Each cottage consists of a pleasant living room and five single bedrooms. During the day the boys work in the gardens or hothouses and care for the grounds.

The "wintergarden" is a most unusual unit which houses the very small children. A major part of this area is constructed almost entirely of glass with a deck floor and many prosthetic devices used to help the children learn to sit, stand or walk, since many of them are physically handicapped. The unit houses from 21 to 40 children with 8 attendants per unit.

Most of the attendants are young girls from 18 to 22 years of age. In addition to the overall responsibility for all the children in the unit, each attendant is personally responsible for three children who are called "her children." They are expected to provide more love and affection to these children because of their personal interest and contact.

An older woman who has participated in the 3 year training course taught at the institution is head of each unit or pavilion and lives at the institution. The young women attendants live above the units in very pleasant single and double rooms. The teachers do not live in the institution since it is considered very important that they reside in the community and participate in community activities.

An observation clinic has been established at the institution which emphasizes teamwork of specialists representing the various disciplines. This clinic corresponds to the diagnostic clinics which exist in some of our states. Excellent cooperative relationships have been established between the institution and the large community hospital in Leiden, a small town nearby, and with the Leiden University Children's Clinic whose director comes to the institution one day per week.

One must conclude that while we emphasize education of our retarded in institutions, the Dutch place major emphasis upon training individuals for their eventual return to a productive community life. The sheltered workshops are outstanding in this regard and favorable labor market makes the efforts of extensive after-care, aiming at private placement, very successful.

I should like to briefly mention those in Denmark and Holland who made my visits in their countries so interesting and enjoyable. I am particularly grateful to: Mr. N. E. Bank-Mikkelsen, Director of Institutions for Care and Treatment of Mental Defectives in Denmark; Dr. Jorgen Lenstrup, child psychiatrist in charge of children in the program; and Dr. Olsen, psychiatrist in charge of the program for retarded adults, and in Holland, to Dr. Piebenga, Chief Inspector for Mental Health; Dr. E. Hoejenbos, Medical Superintendent, Hendrik van Boeijen-Oord; Dr. Christiaan Steketee, Medical Superintendent, Willem van den Bergh-Stichting at Noordwijk-Binnen; Mr. Kiepers, Educational Director, Hendrik van Boeijen-Oord; and Miss Blok of the staff of the Sheltered Workshops in the Hague.

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From the Detroit Convention – A Challenge to . . .

The Stockholders of CEC

RAY GRAHAM

WE are in this month of April 1961 assembled in Detroit, Michigan—a city that is known throughout the world as a "City of Leadership."

Ninety-eight years ago near Dearborn, Henry Ford was born. He was an exceptional child. Before he quit school at age fifteen he was known and respected for his skill in repairing watches and clocks. He became a traveling repairman for a farm machinery firm. At the age of twenty-one, he owned and operated a sawmill. Three years later he was the chief engineer for the Edison Illuminating Company. In his spare time he built his first automobile, and in 1903 organized the Ford Motor Company. About this time he formulated an objective that dominated his life from then on: "to build an automobile within the financial reach of every man." With small initial capital, through mass production and the assembly line, his venture—his adventure—grew into a billion dollar business. Every holder of stock was enriched—mankind was benefited economically, socially, and culturally.

Today another group of stockholders, in an entirely different enterprise, are meeting in Detroit to consider organization development, administrative problems, dividends and expansion. We look back thirty-nine years when Elizabeth Farrell and ten stockholders established CEC at Columbia University.

In 1922 the goals were three. Let us look at them:

"To emphasize the education of the special child."

"To establish professional standards for teachers in the field of special education."

"To unite those interested in the educational problems of the special child."

Today over fifteen thousand stockholders are aware that the production lines of our business have moved forward a long way in thirty-nine years. Many new goals have been set. Our organization has changed and expanded. New challenges of a greatly changed world confront us but we have not, and never will, disregard the statement of Miss Farrell that "no child is too atypical to be neglected."

Any school district, state or province, attempting to serve exceptional children is faced with pressures, recessions, depressions, rivalries, dissatisfactions, depleted areas, neglected areas, false prophets, questionable programs, substitute measures, requests for expediency rather than professional quality, and the wailing walls of despairing cries for help, or the side-line criticisms against playing the game according to the rules.

Can we come up with a clear-cut, honest, and satisfying defense? Are we a profession or are we an assembly of people with jobs? Do we have clear, long range, and defensible goals? Will we be able to face the jury of public appraisal with end-results that justify our existence? The stockholders cannot blame the purchasers of our products if there are defects of workmanship or materials. The responsibility is ours. We rejoice in our progress to date, but we must remember that, when rested upon, nothing wilts faster than laurels.

In assessing the government of CEC and the "New Frontiers" that face us, it seems appropriate that this "White Paper" be presented. It will therefore attempt to redefine our goals, assess our resources, point out our problems, and suggest our future.

Redefining Our Goals

What are the goals of CEC and of Special Education?

We have established the fact that it is the basic right of every living individual to share the goodness of the earth and to achieve personal dignity and respect. Recognizing the contributions that all worthy agencies and organizations make in their particular disciplines and efforts, we have established our particular area of concern to deal pri-

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marily with the special education facilities so that exceptional children will be assured successful adjustment consistent with individual potentialities.

To realize these high purposes we have bound ourselves together in a professional organization so that united effort, organized leadership, and purposeful activities can be developed at chapter, state, provincial and national or international levels. In order that immediate and long range objectives may be successfully promoted through functional programs of special education we subscribe to worthy professional standards of practice in the special school programs, in teacher training, research, published materials, related and associated efforts with other professional groups, developing leadership at all levels, and in designing and extending services geared to the changing world in which we live.

Allow me to elaborate on these goals. The goals of Elizabeth Farrell's day cannot suffice for today any more than the goals of production, design, speed, and control for the "Tin Lizzie" of 1910 can meet the automotive goals of this decade. The goals that may be sound and reasonable in the beginning stages of any enterprise must always move ahead of practice. They are the most essential ingredient of progress. I suggest the following goals as musts in our professional organization:

An increased membership in CEC. A democratic organization or movement is dependent on a united, informed, and purposeful effort. To operate with a minority of those who qualify for membership is undemocratic and weakening. Today only about one-fourth of those actually engaged in special education in Canada and the United States are members of this organization. I am a member of many organizations, The American Legion, the Christian Church, Rotary International, the National Education Association. I know that each legion post, each church congregation, each Rotary Club, each school staff is stronger because it is a part of a large, strong organization. The isolated teacher in special education needs the encouragement, support, and help of a CEC chapter and international organization.

A stronger central CEC office. The present staff is too small and overworked. Their progress and efforts merit highest praise, but there is much more to be done. Increased staff can only come from increased membership. Increased specialized leadership and service can only come from increased staff.

The needs are many. They include, (for instance), a full time competent leader in the area of legislation to direct and lead, to keep the avenues of communication on this subject flowing, and to study and participate in federal and state legislative developments. Today special education is patterned by many legislative acts, philosophies, pressures, and patterns. There are great differences in terminology and definitions. Laws generally further the gaps and differences in practices because they are often shaped to conform with other legislative patterns common to a particular state rather than being molded for definite values and results. Special education will never be a mature discipline as long as great differences, interpretations, and professional practices exist because of such disintegrated legislation developments.

Our central CEC office needs increased staff and personnel to furnish leadership in the contacts and activities of separate chapters and federations. The individual member of a family or the unit of an organization must have guidance and be active within the family or organization. Field representatives should be available to give counsel and leadership when and where needed.

Assessing Our Resources

What are the resources of CEC and of Special Education?

Again I look back to the days of Elizabeth Farrell. There were no defined philosophies and guiding patterns of special education. There were a limited number of institutional schools and a few larger cities with beginnings in special classes. Little research was significant to the particular and peculiar problems of special education. A child could carry in one arm all the significant literature in the field. There was practically no special teacher training in existence.

Even with all the limitations and shortcomings of the present we have gone a long way in developing resources. Today we have supportive legislation in all states and Canada, and at our federal level. We have grown until across this continent thousands of programs are in operation. Every class or established service is a resource for extension and expansion. Research, experimentation, countless stud-

ies, and the compilation of printed resource material combine to make a large library. Public and private, local, state, and national organizations and agencies represent tremendous resources. It still remains for these medical, educational, psychological, social, recreational and vocational agencies to learn how to use each other more effectively—but we do, at least, have them.

Every parent or individual with responsibility or feeling for an exceptional child is a resource. In CEC itself we have a great resource. We must move fast and far in better mobilizing this resource to the point we know it can reach. To individual members or chapters our Washington office is in general a name, but we have not learned to use it as a resource. The NEA recognized and developed CEC as a resource far more than did many of us who are members.

The single greatest resource in CEC or in special education is, without any doubt, the active, interested and cooperative individual. Here are the used, unused and misused resources. An army cannot fight if seven of the eight men in the squad do not fight. A team cannot win if some of the players do not do their part. We must place first the recruitment and mobilization of membership in CEC. A goal of less than 30,000 members by 1963 is evidence of lethargy and indifference.

For membership recruitment I call on every state and province to make a map that omits no geographical area. Today the map is spotted with chapters here and there where there are large school districts. There are many thousands of special education teachers in small isolated areas (sometimes only one or two in a community). These people need CEC and the support of a chapter to which they belong. Existing chapters should have four main objectives in membership:

1. To organize an active and working membership committee.
2. To make a list of every potential member and begin an active membership selling campaign.
3. To identify, contact and sell memberships to those persons in adjacent districts where chapters do not exist.
4. To study their state to determine where new chapters should be started and to sponsor such chapters and stick by them for several years until they are on a firm operating basis.

Our Current Problems

What are some of the problems that confront CEC and special education today?

As a professional group in special education we are subject to a deadly disease known as Special-educationitis. The symptoms are self-complacency or smugness, and luke-warm temperature of "we-have-arrived." We must rehabilitate ourselves under a new directive of "progress is our most important product." Today too much special education is directed and organized on the same formulas with which it was begun ten, twenty-five or forty years ago. The honeymoon of special education is over. Catchy phrases that incite public support will no longer do the job. From now on we shall be known and judged by our works. The one evaluation factor by which we shall be assessed will be the long range results in the individual lives of those who have been entrusted to us because of serious exceptionalities that needed special education.

We live in an age of science. In all teaching, but especially in special education, we must become scientific. We must be known for our ability to get results—not as keepers of classes. The feelings of gratitude that parents have toward us today because their children are in a program, will not balance the books if that child does not measure up to his potentialities as an adult. We have gained a beachhead. Now we must dig in and win a victory for each child.

I have traveled a lot in the past year and have had an opportunity to assess special education in many states. I am concerned that special education is often too little special and too much general. The basic need of special education is to apply knowledges and skills in directing a growth and learning program that meets the individual differences of

POSITIONS IN HEARING CONSERVATION

$7740-$9360. N. Y. State Education Dept. Nationwide testing —No Residence Requirement. Assists in improvement of hearing conservation in schools. Masters, including 6 hours in education of handicapped, with 3 years experience, or 2 years experience and additional year graduate study. Test November 18. Write Recruitment Unit, Department of Civil Service, Box 3P, State Campus, Albany 1, New York.

exceptional children. But I find individual objectives, goals, and procedures applied in decreasing proportion. There is too much grouping. All the children are doing, or trying to do, the same thing at the same time.

If tutoring helps one brain injured child it is too often presumed that all brain injured should be tutored. If integrating one child into a regular class for one subject works out there is a panacea for getting all children into regular classes with no consideration as to their individual readiness for it, or the regular class for them. If one child can operate a loom all children operate looms. If some children can play bean bags they all can play it. If one youth responds to pre-vocational training there is often a tendency to plan it for all. If one class goes to the zoo it becomes a pattern for all classes. We must adjust ourselves to the very complicated and scientific task of setting objectives, assigning work projects, assessing gains and results, and using curriculum guides to meet individual learning problems even though in a group situation.

The major problem facing special education today grows out of this smugness in regard to standards. Across the country too much special education is on a basis of expediency. Much legislation, many state regulations and local procedures are designed only to get children with serious problems out of regular classes. Administrators are too prone to solve problems of local or parent pressure by any device that brings immediate relief. To tolerate enrollments in special classes that result in, or necessitate, group treatment of individual differences is intolerable. Any teacher with little or no special preparation, any room with little or no attention to safety and curriculum needs, or any eligibility or admission policy in regard to children is merely a return to the old "opportunity room" or "parking lot" practice of three decades ago.

"You expect more from standards and you get it." Defensible minimum standards must be set and maintained. Faulty standards are the crumbling materials in the structure. Special education cannot survive if those standards must be lowered to meet parent anxieties or administrative conveniences. The only true test of a standard is in terms of its benefit to the children needing help.

I am concerned at the amount of special education that is not being given. But we hear as an explanation, "we would if we could." This is only surpassed by those who "could if they would." These phrases have become the great alibis for inaction. In some cases laws permit special educational facilities but districts are unwilling, even though qualified teachers are available. In other instances they are too willing and use any teacher, even though unfitted by personality and untrained for the job. It is time that all special education people come to the aid of their profession by recognizing that poor, inadequate, lackadaisical, poorly supervised, and inadequately conducted programs can render a disservice to exceptional children and to special education.

We cannot adequately discuss the grave problems facing special education unless we include the problem of teacher training. With the passage of legislation and the good or bad organization of classes there is a serious lack of sincerity, practice and good results in training teachers. This is not a blanket charge, but many of the existing programs would come under this blanket.

A good example is what has happened as a result of Public Law 85-926—Fellowships for training high level personnel in the area of mental retardation. The law was passed because it was felt that few universities were staffed or equipped to give this training. But almost overnight a vast number of universities miraculously came up with what they call well organized course sequences taught by specialists in mental retardation. There is great danger that in this greatest of all hog-calling contests, with everyone wanting to get to the financial trough, special education will be set back. I know of no way to stretch out interpretations that justify saying that two Ph.D's in general psychology and general education, each teaching one class, can be counted as two highly experienced and qualified doctors in mental retardation. I know of no way that a master's or doctor's degree, that results from a little bit of knowledge in regard to every type of handicapped child, can be high level training in the one area of mental retardation. But dozens of universities have submitted elaborately prepared applications that, if taken at face value, would indicate an over-abundance of high-level training resources.

The problem of the teacher training in many colleges and universities is equally grave because they are, at times, so inadequate as to be professionally dishonest. I am amazed at the number of

teacher training centers that set up courses to meet the meagre certification standards of their own state, but accept students from other states who will, in most cases, return to their own state. I am also concerned at the naive manner in which many of these teacher-training centers will merely adjust existing courses by adding one unit or lecture and then say it meets the state regulation. These eager-beaver spurts into such false expansion are doing special education a disservice as well as hurting the training centers that are facing the problem honestly.

I am concerned over the number of schools asking that teachers be approved who have collected credits by extension, correspondence, and summer schools from a variety of institutions. I am most unhappy at the desire of some to count a course in educational psychology as a substitute for education of exceptional children, or a course in general psychology as a course in tests and measurements, or a course in speech correction as a substitute for one in methods of teaching the deaf. If I have sounded sour or too condemning I want to insist here that I am dead serious about the need for strengthening our teacher training programs and eliminating all that are hardly reasonable facsimiles of the same.

The last of these several problems that I will mention might be expressed as follows: new ideas should always be welcomed and examined; startling ideas should be carefully weighed. This is a problem of special concern to us who work with children who have exceptionalities. It is an area that invites the startling statements. These often come from interested but unprofessional groups, or they may come from a "self-appointed" critic of the existing practice. Sometimes they come from serious and professional researchers.

There seem to be some articles in recent publications that have appeared to say that mentally retarded children may make as much progress in regular as in special classes. Such a statement pulls me up short. If this is true, I wonder why the thousands of teachers of special classes have not discovered this. Or why, in those areas where mentally retarded children have not been succeeding in regular classes, they were unable to correct the trend. I have been unable to find whether children reported in such articles were of low or high ability in the mental retarded range, or whether the regular classes were geared to the lower ability of the children enrolled. Do such studies measure factors beyond knowledges and skills?

I am somewhat concerned that many studies of progress results with handicapped children are based rather loosely on existing classes, irrespective of how efficient the teachers are or how well organized and supervised the program. No one has differentiated what progress a group of children make in relationship to the skill and insight of a good teacher, a typical teacher, or a poor teacher. Most studies report pupil achievement but not teacher effectiveness. My own personal observation of the poorest teachers of trainable mentally handicapped children versus the best teachers of such classes would lead to greatly different conclusions as to the justification of such progress.

In Illinois we think we have some very good evidence on the value of pre-school nursery programs for handicapped children including the mentally retarded. But whether the idea is so startling that it needs further study I do not know. At least very little has been done to identify and provide for such children by the local districts. In

TECHNIQUES FOR OBSERVING NORMAL CHILD BEHAVIOR

By Nancy Trevorrow Carbonara

The author's extensive experience in observing child behavior has resulted in this handbook of concrete suggestions for individuals in fields such as teaching, nursing, medicine, psychiatry, group work, and child development. This pamphlet instructs students in what to look for, how to take notes while observing, how to write reports, and points out how observation of actual behavior is related to their academic training.

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contrast, there has been some growth in nursery school special programs for blind or deaf children of pre-school ages. The results are most satisfying.

Our Future

What are some suggestions for the future that the Stockholders of CEC might well consider?

CEC is a professional organization, but there is more to professional than being organized. Professionalism is primarily a thing of the spirit. It involves ethics. Attitudes determine service concepts; service concepts determine good, bad, or indifferent programs. Ethics are more than academic requirements and standards. They involve the ability to work, to differ honestly, to communicate, and to participate—certainly not wistful thinking and half-cocked ideas. I have seen special education teachers stand in awe before a state director, a university specialist, or their own local supervisor. This is not healthy professionalism. The cream of the CEC family may well be those who work directly with exceptional children. Professionalism cannot ignore this 95% of our group. They must be appreciated and supported. They must be used in CEC at every level. They must not be unused or misused. Leadership in CEC that fails to recognize the non-commissioned officers and the front rank privates will become bureaucratic, dictatorial, and divisional. We should develop this broad and deep concept of professional benefits for all.

I would suggest that CEC recognize the importance of its delegate assembly by radically revising the present structure and policy. CEC is too large in membership, number of chapters and geographical extent to expect a legislative group to function in a few sessions at the "tired end" of long convention sessions. It seems logical that a plan should be developed whereby this legislative group is carefully selected for a period of several years, because of interest, ability, and willingness to serve. Delegate assemblies, made up of persons merely because they are attending the convention, with little background or knowledge about the issues to be resolved, are inclined to make hasty decisions. Many delegates are appointed a few weeks before the convention and have no opportunity to study the proposals on which they vote.

A legislative assembly of carefully chosen members who serve a number of years would give character and substance to the purpose of this group. It would also simplify the matter of improved communications with the executive branch of our organization. It would permit them to form committees and to study or to initiate proposals. In addition, it would encourage more discussion of issues in local chapters. The legislative branch of CEC should have its own officers, and not have to depend on our administrative officers for 99% of its leadership and thinking. I would propose that no member of CEC be permitted to serve on more than one committee simultaneously. It is too easy to assign a few willing people to many tasks. This is a burden to that person and fails to develop and recognize other leadership.

I would further propose that no member be permitted to participate in more than one program at the annual convention. It deprives others of the opportunity and prevents that person from attending meetings of his choice. It also results in poor program planning in many respects.

I would suggest that topics of broad interest be discussed or debated at our annual program so that all sides of the problems may be examined. This might be an improvement over many sectional meetings that rehash the same material each year and often degenerate into merely a few people relating what they do. Certain legislative issues and proposed ideas, sometimes the "startling ideas," need to be examined and discussed, pro and con. I would suggest that a plan be devised whereby a yearbook would be published annually. Each would be on a carefully selected topic and the committee would have three years to prepare it. In this way three committees would be working simultaneously.

In conclusion I would like to say that I believe in special education and in the profession to which I belong. I believe in the Council for Exceptional Children and the opportunity it gives to all of us to unite in common efforts. I believe in the philosophy of growth and change and improvement. I believe that in our membership we have the ability to move forward and to move our profession forward. I believe in healthy differences of opinions and consider them a means of progress. I believe that the best way to help exceptional children is by developing ourselves and our professional resources.

Bulletin

CONVENTIONS
CONVENTIONS
CONVENTIONS

As a growing and democratic organization, the CEC needs the active participation of its total membership. This means that each member must be well-informed about CEC's present program and plans for the future.

Considerable journal space has been, and will continue to be given to matters of broad general interest. This month, the major theme for the "Bulletin" section is the concluding report on CEC's 39th Annual International Convention, held in Detroit, Michigan, April 4-8, 1961. (For the first report, please see the May, 1961 issue.) Of necessity, much of what happened in Detroit cannot be reported in great detail. The following resumé gives information on convention attendance, action taken by official CEC bodies (executive committee, board of governors, and delegate assembly), two new committees, and membership requirements under the new CEC constitution and bylaws.

RECORD ATTENDANCE FOR DETROIT

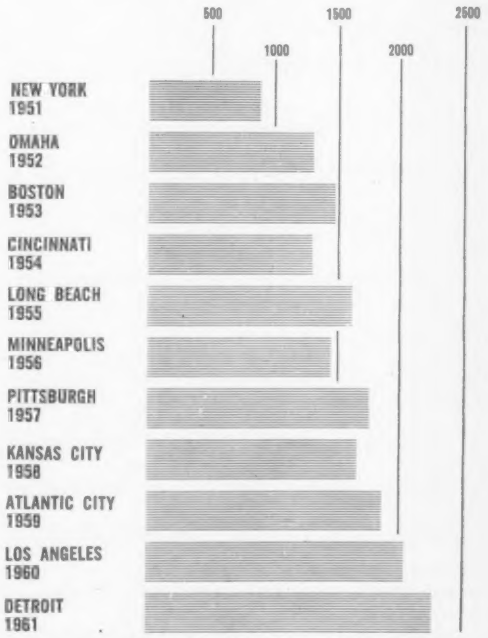
Annual convention attendance over the past ten years, as illustrated in the chart, has continued to grow.

This year's international convention with the Detroit Chapter as host, recorded the largest registered attendance to date—2289. Co-sponsored by the Michigan Federated Chapters, the convention was held at the Statler Hilton, April 4-8.

Heading the attendance roster was the home state of Michigan with a total of 1171 present. Ontario, Canada registered 144 while Illinois and New York contributed 133 and 103 respectively.

Other states and provinces with over 10 persons in attendance included: Ohio, 72; Pennsylvania, 70; Missouri, 51; Iowa, 42; Indiana, 37; California, 35; Tennessee, 32; Texas, 24; Minnesota, 24; District of Columbia, 24; Virginia, 23; Wisconsin, 22; Maryland, 21; Louisiana, 20; New Jersey, 18; Georgia, 16; Florida, 15; Kansas, 15; Colorado, 14; Massachusetts, 13; Washington, 13; and Kentucky, 10. In addition to the grand total of 54 states and provinces in attendance, Brazil and the Canal Zone were also represented.

Sincere thanks for a job well done are due the Detroit Chapter and it's president, Floyd Benitz, and the Michigan Federation Chapters with their president, Richard Guenther. Special recognition must also be extended to Paul H. Voelker, local arrangements chairman and Leo F. Cain, program chairman for their notable contribution to this convention success.



ANNUAL CONVENTION ATTENDANCE, 1951-61

OFFICIAL ACTION TAKEN

Of great importance to Council members are the official actions taken by its governing bodies. During the Detroit convention, the executive committee (EC), the board of governors (BG), and the delegate assembly (DA) considered many problems of Council programs and activities. Following is a summary of additional decisions which have not been previously reported in the journal.

Conventions

Because of the number of problems which have been encountered in scheduling various convention activities in recent years, an *ad hoc* committee on convention policies and procedures was established. This committee, to be comprised of representative Council and division membership, will study such problems as length of CEC conventions, relationship of divisions and their programs to the general convention program, scheduling and priority of CEC official business meetings, and others. As a result of its study, the committe will formulate policies and present them to the board of governors for official action when this body convenes in Columbus. (EC)

A federation or branch which co-sponsors with CEC a regional or international convention will receive 50 cents for each general registration. A co-sponsoring federation or branch agrees to conduct no other convention during the particular school year that the CEC convention is held in its state or province. Such an agreement enables CEC members concerned to concentrate their efforts on one convention and, in most instances, with no financial loss. (BG)

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, was selected as the site for the 1963 international convention and Portland, Oregon will be the convention city for 1965. (EC)

Locations were also chosen for the Council's 1963 regional conferences. The Vancouver regional will include Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Southern Alaska, Washington, Northern Oregon, Northern Idaho, and Montana. The Salt Lake City regional will include Utah, Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado, Wyoming, Southern Oregon, Nevada, and California. (EC)

Convention registration fees were established as follows: (DA) International Conventions:
general (full) registration—$7.00;
single registration—$2.00.
Regional Conferences:
general (full) registration—$5.00;
single registration, $2.00.

Council Organization

A committee was formed to study the recruitment and organization of CEC divisions and various factors involved in a division's relationship with International. President Leo Cain will serve as chairman of this committee. (BG)

New minimum membership enrollment standards were adopted for CEC units. These standards are now in effect for each new applicant unit and each unit which met or exceeded them in its 1960 memberships. Any existing unit that did not meet these standards in 1960 will have until 1965 to do so. (DA)

Unit	*Minimum Membership*
Division	50
Federation (including Chapter and non-Chapter)	100
Branch	50
Chapter	20

In addition to the two international committees, nominations and credentials-elections, provided in the CEC constitution, the following standing committees were created. (BG)

American: Committee on Legislation.
Canadian: Committee on Canadian Affairs.
International: International Relations, Membership, Research, and Resolutions.

Both Canada and the United States will be represented in the membership of all CEC committees classified as International. (DA)

Finance

A budget of $186,000 was adopted for the 1961-62 fiscal year. (The October issue will contain a complete report of Council finance.) Certain administrative changes, designed to reduce expenditures, have been endorsed to implement this budget. Those of particular interest to the membership are as follows: (BG)

1. Journal articles will be reprinted only for authors, large bulk orders, and bound series on a given topic.
2. Unit (chapter, branch, federation) membership record receipts will be reduced to two per year unless there is an error in the order.
3. All life membership payment plans have been converted to a single billing date—November 1.
4. Regional convention programs will be published in the journal (see this issue) and not as separate bulletins.

A grant of $2500 was made to the Committee on Canadian Affairs for operation expenses during the 1961-62 fiscal year. (BG)

Relationships with Other Organizations

A proposal was accepted from Donald L. Cleland, President-elect of the International Reading Association, for CEC and IRA to co-sponsor section meetings at their respective annual conventions on the topic, Reading and the Exceptional Child. IRA will therefore be a co-sponsor for such section meetings at the CEC International Convention, Columbus, Ohio, April 24-28; CEC shall reciprocate at IRA's Seventh Annual Conference in San Francisco, California, May 3-5. (EC)

The CEC president was authorized to appoint Council members to act in a liaison capacity with the American Psychological Association's *ad hoc* committee on mental retardation and with committees of other organizations related to Council activities. The purpose of the APA committee is to

"focus upon specific issues concerning mental retardation which are in need of attention and action by psychologists and the APA." (EC)

CEC accepted membership in the International Society for the Rehabilitation of the Disabled. With the payment of a $50.00 fee, the Council affiliates with this federation of organizations representing 36 countries. (DA)

COMMITTEES HOLD INITIAL MEETINGS

Two new CEC committees, the Federation Program Development Committee and the Student Membership Subcommittee, met at Detroit to chart a course of action for strengthening the Council's total membership program.

Federation Program Development Committee

An outgrowth of the conference of large city chapter representatives (August 1960), the Federation Program Development Committee was established to study the role of CEC federations in relation to their chapters and International, and to develop procedures and materials for more effective federation programs.

Richard J. Hess, president of the Pennsylvania federation, chairs this committee composed of the following representatives: Merle Karnes, Mary Walsh, Joseph Fenton, Mary Harnett, Gertrude Barber, Ray Graham, and June Jordan.

The federation committee outlined the contents of an operations handbook for federation officials and is currently preparing material for publication by October, 1962. The handbook will contain guidelines in such problem areas as: federation responsibility in chapter organization and charter status; federation services to chapters in program planning; finance and budgets; special federation projects; administrative structure; and communications and relations between federations and International.

Federation officials and other interested CEC members are encouraged to send Chairman Hess any suggestions or problems they would like the committee to consider.

Student Membership Subcommittee

The continuous growth of CEC student chapters emphasizes the need for an expansion of Council services to student members. Last spring, the CEC Executive Committee instructed International Membership Chairman Ray Graham to organize a membership sub-committee which would have the following as its main purposes:

To study student membership and make recommendations regarding future relationships of a student organization with International, and to initiate projects and activities to stimulate the growth of student membership and provide needed services to student chapters.

Chairman Graham conducted a workshop committee meeting which was open to all interested Detroit convention participants. Major recommendations of this group included:

1. Teacher education personnel need to be informed about CEC and supplied with materials for distribution to potential student members. Not all college and university educators in the various special education areas are CEC members. However, those who are members may not be aware of the value of enrolling their students in our professional organization. The student membership committee should begin an information program directed toward teacher training personnel.
2. Special section meetings should be planned for student CEC members at international conventions. A meeting along these lines is in preparation for the convention at Columbus. The committee will also need to investigate the possibility of inexpensive housing for students attending Council conventions.
3. Communication among student chapters should be encouraged and some means established for the exchange of ideas, such as a newsletter.

Plans are now underway for both a student section meeting at the Columbus convention and the preparation of a special brochure for student chapter activities.

NO CHANGE IN MEMBERSHIP REQUIREMENTS

A major issue in the recent revision of CEC's constitution and bylaws was the qualification for membership. Because of the extensive interest and study given this problem by Council units, the following statement to the membership is in order.

The new Constitution and bylaws, adopted by the Fifteenth Delegate Assembly in Detroit, make no specification for membership, other than article III, section 1, of the Constitution, which indicates that membership shall consist of "professional and other interested persons." The delegate assembly voted to retain the intent and interpretation of the provisions of the former constitution and by legislative action adopted the following:

Who May be Enrolled: That the majority of the members of each chapter and branch, and a majority of the non-chapter members of each federation, and a majority of the independent members enrolled by the central office shall be actively engaged in professional work related to the education of exceptional children.

Interpretation of Provisions: That the above provisions be interpreted to mean that 'professional work *related* to the education of exceptional children' includes work of persons in the professions of medicine, psychology, and others who are members of the school staff and who give services, make decisions or make recommendations which affect the education of such children. For example, the social worker who serves in liaison capacity between the special education services, or the psychologist who tests exceptional children for guidance and place-

ment, or the school physician who arranges for, or conducts clinics for exceptional children or who follows their health progress are considered as doing professional work related to their education.

The medical specialist who has a private practice and *occasionally* conducts a clinic, on a part-time contract basis, for diagnosing exceptionalities has *no day-by-day* responsibilities for these children. Therefore, he must be treated like any other person outside the field. He is eligible for CEC membership, but he is not recognized as being *actively engaged* in professional work related to the education of such children. To be actively engaged implies professionally recognized employment with a continuing responsibility. A principal, for example, may deal, directly, only occasionally, with the exceptional children in his school, but he is employed to exercise a continuing responsibility for the operation of a program for them. Therefore, he, unlike the private practicing physician, is recognized as being actively engaged in professional work related to their education. Any percentage of members in excess of 50 fulfills the requirements for persons so professionally engaged.

LAST CALL

Persons desiring to present papers at the CEC Annual Convention in Columbus, Ohio, April 24-28, 1962, should send an abstract to Program Chairman Mamie Jo Jones, Coordinator, Services for Exceptional Children, Georgia State Department of Education, 133 State Office Building, Atlanta 3, Georgia. While the program is nearly complete, it may still be possible for late papers to be accepted. Anyone interested should act quickly by sending his name, full title and professional position, current mailing address, and a brief abstract of his proposed paper to the above address.

NEXT IN SIGHT—FALL REGIONALS

prominent speakers—tours—general sessions

panels—workshops—symposiums—discussions

NOVEMBER is just around the corner and with it CEC's West Central and Western fall regional conferences. The Western conference is beckoning from the city of fun and good fortune—Seattle, Washington, while Austin, the capital of the Lone Star State, extends the welcome mat for the West Central regional.

Both the Seattle and Austin programs have been developed to present a broad coverage of special education problems, new ideas, trends, and research findings. Regardless of your particular area of specialization, we are sure you will find attendance at one or both of these conventions stimulating and a decided asset in your own work in the field. What better way to learn the latest and discuss your special field with others from neighboring areas than to 'pack your grip for a convention trip.'

Institutionalization and Psycho-Educational Development of Deaf Children

The Council for Exceptional Children, NEA

CEC

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WASHINGTONIANS are saying . . .

Seattle or Bust

November 15-18, the Olympic Western Hotel, hosted by the Seattle-King County chapter are the "must" facts for the Western regional. Georgie Lee Abel, Program Chairman, promises a most enlightening program of five general sessions and 48 section meetings under the theme "Quality Education Requires Cooperation in Research, Teaching and Administration." Miss Abel is Professor of Education in the Department of Special Education and Rehabilitation Counseling at San Francisco State College.

Local arrangements chairman, Wylena Gamon, Director of Special Education for the King County Schools is busily planning tours and visitations not only of the area's schools and agencies, but also to give conventioners a glimpse of scenic Seattle from her "aquatic doorstep to her mountainous backyard." Scenic spots will include a water tour of the harbor, through the government locks and across Puget Sound to Blake Island to enjoy an authentic Northwest Salmon bake.

Two additional features at Seattle will be the Friday, November 17 luncheon and meeting sponsored by the American Association of Instructors of the Blind and the Saturday morning special breakfast of the Homebound and Hospitalized Division.

General Session speakers in Seattle include Leo F. Cain, San Francisco State College and CEC President; Arthur H. Parmelee, M.D., Department of Pediatrics, University of California Medical School; Robert W. Deisher, M.D., Director of the Clinic for Child Study, Department of Pediatrics, University of Washington Medical School; Jack W. Birch, Department of Special Education and Rehabilitation, University of Pittsburgh and immediate Past President of CEC; Romaine P. Mackie, Exceptional Children and Youth, U.S. Office of Education; F. W. Doyle, California State Board of Education; Edith Green, Congressman from Oregon; and Dr. Angelo Anastasio, Associate Professor of Sociology at Western Washington State College.

. Although this western conference is expressly aimed at a 10-state and province area, it by no means excludes any interested Council member. So request your leave now and plan to join Council conventioners from Alberta, British Columbia, California, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Oregon, Utah, Washington and Wyoming in Seattle this November.

Watch future issues for a program outline of the 40th Annual CEC International Convention, Columbus, Ohio, April 24-28, 1962.

TEXANS are saying . . .

Y'All Come to Austin

The Texas Council and Lone Star Chapter "bandidos" extend a cordial "Y'All Come" to all Council members, but especially to those in Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Kansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, New Mexico, Oklahoma and Texas. November 29 to December 2 is the date; The Commodore Perry Hotel, the headquarters.

Using the theme "Closing the Gap Between What We Know and What We Do in the Education of Exceptional Children," Program Chairman John W. Kidd promises a stimulating and enlightening series of topics. Dr. Kidd is Head of the Department of Special Education, Northwestern State College, Natchitoches, Louisiana. Six general sessions and 28 section meetings are planned to provide a thorough coverage of this theme.

Speakers at the general sessions in Austin include William C. Geer, CEC Executive Secretary; Mamie Jo Jones, Georgia State Department of Education and CEC's President-Elect; Jack W. Birch; Leo F. Cain; and Romaine P. Mackie.

Tours to acquaint the conventioner with Austin's scenic splendor and fine educational system are being planned by local arrangements chairman, Margaret Emswiler, Consultant for Education for Exceptional Children in the Austin Public Schools.

As you lay plans to join your fellow CEC'ers at one or both of these fall regionals it would be a good idea to be an "early-bird" in making your hotel reservations. The Olympic Western Hotel in Seattle has single rooms from $9 to $18, rooms with twin beds from $12 to $20 and doubles from $15 to $22. Austin's convention hotel, The Commodore Perry, lists singles from $6.50 to $12, rooms with twin beds from $8 to $11 and doubles from $9 to $16. We suggest you write for a reservation 'pronto' for the hotel and convention which you plan to attend.

At Austin, all meetings, including meal functions, are in accordance with standard Council policy, open to any person registered at the conference. Consequently, all phases of the occasion over which CEC has full control are strictly non-segregated. However, CEC must conform (as in past regionals, when unavoidable) to local practice involving that aspect of attendance over which we can exercise no control, namely public housing and public dining facilities. As a result, other accommodations will be available for persons who, because of current local hotel policy, are unable to register at The Commodore Perry Hotel. The Commodore Perry will be glad to arrange other reservations for persons requiring them.

The following pages of the journal carry the Programs at a Glance for both the Seattle and Austin regionals. Even these condensed program outlines should convince you to place the regional convention dates on your calendar as a must.

REGIONAL

PROGRAMS AT

AUSTIN

WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 29

EVENING 7:30-9:30

General Session Must Practice Lag a Half Century Behind Knowledge

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 30

MORNING 8:30-9:45

General Session Developments, Trends and Prospects

Section Meetings 10:00-12 noon

An Approach to Language Development
Services of a College Special Education Center
Recent Research on Cerebral Palsy
The Trainable Child
Postschool Adjustment of Emotionally Disturbed Children

AFTERNOON

Section Meetings 2:00-4:00

The Pregnant Teenager
Teaching Educable Mentally Handicapped
Aphasia—Points of View
Administration in the Education of the Disturbed and Maladjusted
Education of the More Able Student

EVENING

Texas Federation Open House 7:30-9:30

FRIDAY, DECEMBER 1

MORNING 8:30-9:45

General Session The National Scene

Section Meetings 10:00-12 noon

Teamwork to Aid the Partially Seeing
Research Implications for Education of Hyperkinetic Children
Initiating a School Speech and Hearing Program
Research Implications for Teachers of Educable Retarded
Special Education Looks at School Administration
Educating Homebound and Hospitalized Children

AFTERNOON

Section Meetings 2:00-4:00

Southern Regional Project on the Education of the Gifted
Demonstration—Education of the Deaf
Infants and Pre-School Children
Legal and/or Administrative Aspects of Educating the Mentally Retarded
Administration Looks at Special Education
Recent Neurological Research

Film Theatre 4:15-6:00

EVENING

General Session President's Dinner; Let's Face the Music 7:30-9:30

SATURDAY, DECEMBER 2

MORNING 8:30-9:45

General Session CEC In Prospect

Section Meetings 10:00-12 noon

Demonstration Clinic on Perceptual Training Activities for Brain Injured
New Program for the Multi-Handicapped—The Swanson Clinic
U.S. Office of Education and School Speech and Hearing Programs
Criteria for Successful Job Placement with Retarded Young Adults
Teacher Education and Certification Standards
Programs for Orthopedically Handicapped

AFTERNOON 12:30

General Session and Luncheon

CONFERENCES

A GLANCE

SEATTLE

WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 15

EVENING 7:30-9:30

General Session Quality Education for Exceptional Children Requires Cooperation

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 16

MORNING 8:30-10:15

General Session The Needs of Parents

Section Meetings 10:30-12 Noon

Definition, Program Placement and Program Planning
Classroom Teachers Can Help the Child with Psychological Problems
Enrichment of teaching for Deaf and Hard of Hearing
Problems Confronting Administration
Psychological Issues in Speech Therapy
Advances in Research in Mental Retardation
Orthopedically Handicapped and Neurologically Involved

AFTERNOON 2:00-4:30

Section Meetings

Research, Teaching and Administration for Gifted Children
Medical Aspects of Rehabilitation
Children with Special Health Problems
Teaching the Multiply Handicapped
Handicapped Children and their Parents
Pre-Service Training for Teachers
Problems in Administration
Psychological Appraisal
Programming for Teenage Unmarried Mothers
Symposium on Research

FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 17

MORNING 8:30-10:15

General Session Research in Cooperation with Teaching and Administration
The Teacher as a Cooperating Person

Section Meetings 10:30-12 Noon

(Ten Discussion Groups on General Session Theme)

AFTERNOON 2:00-4.30

Section Meetings

Orientation and Mobility Instruction for the Blind
Pre-vocational Assessment
Improving the Speech of Deaf and Hard of Hearing
Development of Curriculum for the Mentally Retarded

The Emotionally Disturbed and Maladjusted
More Effective Communication for Exceptional Children

EVENING 7:30-9:30

General Session President's Dinner; Quality Education Requires Constructive Legislation

SATURDAY, NOVEMBER 18

MORNING 8:30-10:15

Section Meetings

Education of the Partially Seeing
Emotionally Disturbed in School Programs
Preparation of Good Teachers
Employment Problems and Possibilities for the Retarded
Effect of Kindergarten on Speech Development
Pressing Needs in the Education of the Deaf

Section Meetings 10:30-12 Noon

Effective Programs for the Gifted
Contributions of Guided Work Situations
The Child with Special Health Problems
Research Needs of the Multiply Handicapped
Problems and Goals in Administration
The Special Education Teacher in a Total School Organization
Team Approach to Home and Hospital Instruction
After Appraisal, What?
Understanding the Pre-school Child
Symposium on research

AFTERNOON 12:30

General Session and Luncheon An Anthropological View of Exceptional Children

NEWS AND NOTES

■ CEC was represented at the WCOTP meeting August 1-7 in New Delhi by Elsa Schneider of the U.S. Office of Education and William C. Kvaraceus of Boston University.

■ Boyd V. Sheets, for eight years director of the Speech and Hearing Clinic at the University of Utah, has been appointed Director of Special Education in the Medical and Scientific Section of United Cerebral Palsy Associations.

■ The Council was represented in June at the 16th National Conference on Citizenship by Frederic M. McCutchen, Director, St. John's Development Service for Children, Washington, D.C., and Thomas W. Mulrooney, Director, Department of Child Development and Guidance, Wilmington Public Schools, Delaware.

■ Dura-Louise Cockrell, of the Department of Education and Child Study, Smith College, Northampton, Massachusetts, and chairman of the Council's preschool and nursery committee, has accepted a position as Child Development Specialist for the Oklahoma State Department of Health, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

■ Felix Barker, State Director of Special Education, reports that North Carolina's 13th Annual Conference on Special Education will be held at the Robert E. Lee Hotel in Salem, November 30—December 2.

■ The CEC headquarters office now has a reference directory of special educators in other countries. Compiled by Wallace W. Taylor on behalf of the CEC International Relations Committee, the directory may be helpful to those who contemplate visits to special education facilities overseas. Information is available upon request.

In order that the directory may be maintained and expanded, persons having knowledge of overseas facilities and personnel are encouraged to send information on them to CEC headquarters.

■ The Michigan Association for Better Hearing has announced authorization for the financing of a Michigan rehabilitation center for deaf people with additional handicaps. Authorization of $243,350 over four years was made by Miss Mary E. Switzer of the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

Beginning in 1962, funds will be provided for a residence center that will eventually serve between thirty and forty clients, and employ about seven people. Operation will be by the Michigan Association for Better Hearing in cooperation with the Michigan Division of Vocational Rehabilitation. This project is for the rehabilitation of a small minority of deaf men who have never gone to school, deaf men with other severe handicaps, and deaf men who, for some reason, have lost a series of jobs and find themselves unemployable. Training will be on the personal and prevocational levels and when schooling is completed, the men will be referred to the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation for vocational training and/or placement.

■ Theodore C. Dilworth of Metuchen, Special Education Administrator for the New Jersey State Department of Education, has been named Chief of Educational Services at The Training School, Vineland, New Jersey. Mr. Dilworth succeeds Bernard F. Niehm, education Chief since 1957.

■ X-ray movies showing the speech mechanism in action are now being used in language training of the deaf. The X-ray films, produced at the Medical Center of the University of California in Los Angeles, are designed to help teacher and pupil to see what goes on in the mouth and throat during speech. The University has also made films for Spanish-speaking groups which have been shown in both the U.S. and Mexico.

■ The French-speaking section of the Swiss Federation for the Blind has recently started a "talking newspaper" for the blind. Issued ten to twelve times a year, this new service is intended to provide blind people with "a maximum of joy, amusement and instruction." Each tape will provide 2½ hours listening, and will contain instructive and recreational articles as well as news of the activities of the Swiss Federation and similar organizations in other countries.

■ Francis P. Connor of Columbia University represented the CEC at the Project on Instruction Seminar in Washington, D. C., June 15-17.

■ The International Society for Rehabilitation of the Disabled, in cooperation with the Reader's Digest Foundation, has established the READER'S DIGEST INTERNATIONAL REHABILITATION AWARDS. These awards will be presented to societies, associations and interested groups which have done most to advance and improve rehabilitation services and facilities for the handicapped during the two-year period January 1, 1961 to December 31, 1962. Presentations of the seven awards, ranging from $500 to $2500, will be made at the Ninth World Congress of the International Society in Copenhagen, June, 1963.

The purpose of the awards is to stimulate voluntary activity in the field of rehabilitation throughout the world, as well as to encourage the improvement and expansion of programs and facilities already in effect. A specially prepared brochure outlining the procedures to follow in applying for the awards is available from the International Society upon request.

■ CEC and its division, the Council of Administrators of Special Education in Local School Systems, with the assistance of the Cooperative Research Branch of the U.S. Office of Education, will conduct a research workshop in New York City, October 13 and 14. Harrie M. Selznick of Baltimore, chairman of the CASELSS's research committee, is serving as general chairman to plan the event and Mary E. Harnett of New York City is acting as local arrangements chairman.

Workshop attendance is by invitation only, to keep it within the manageable limits of 60 to 80 persons. Selections will be made from the following states and provinces: Ohio, West Virginia, Virginia, District of Columbia, Maryland, Delaware, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, Vermont, New Hampshire, Maine, Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island.

■ Governor Rockefeller of New York has directed that all present and future state-owned buildings be modified to provide easy access to persons with physical handicaps. This new state policy follows a 1961 recommendation of the Governor's Council on Rehabilitation and the Interdepartmental Health and Hospital Council.

The Governor has requested the State Department of Public works to incorporate such features as gently sloping ramps, ground-level entrances, automatic treadle door openers and handrails in the plans for all new state structures. The department will also survey existing structures to determine what steps may be taken to provide comparable features in these buildings.

"Modifying construction plans for state buildings in this way," Rockefeller said, "will greatly increase the opportunities within state government to provide usefull employment for the handicapped."

■ William G. Carr, Executive Secretary of the NEA has announced the selection of Daniel Schreiber, Coordinator of the Higher Horizons program in the New York City schools, to direct an intensive program aimed at reducing the numbers of young people who drop out of school.

The program commencing the first week of September will be financed largely by the Ford Foundation and will seek also to establish the role of the schools in serving the educational needs of the unemployed out-of-school youths between the ages of 16 and 20.

■ Mildred R. Moon of Gary, Indiana received the second annual Hathaway Award as "Teacher of the Year for Partially Seeing Children" at the annual Sight-Saving Conference of the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness. Miss Moon, selected from among nominees of 31 states and the District of Columbia, has taught partially seeing students at Gary for more than 30 years. The NSPB award honors the memory of Mrs. Hathaway, a pioneer in special education for the partially seeing.

■ Don Davies, Associate Professor and Director of Student Teaching of the College of Education, University of Minnesota, has been named to head the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. Dr. Davies will replace T. M. Stinnett who has assumed the post of Assistant Executive Secretary for Professional Development and Welfare of the NEA. The NCTEPS, an agency of NEA, is concerned with the upgrading of teacher preparation and standards.

■ Ian Campbell, National Coordinator of Civilian Rehabilitation, Department of Labour, Ottawa, Canada, has been appointed chairman of the newly created World Commission on Vocational Rehabilitation.

The objectives of the Commission will be to overcome vocational problems confronting the disabled, to increase employment of the handicapped, and to identify problems for research and study. The Commission will function as part of the International Society for Rehabilitation of the Disabled (formerly for the Welfare of Cripples).

■ Gertrude Roser, principal of the Rackham School for Handicapped Children and professor of special education at Eastern Michigan University, was honored last May with the Fourth Annual Award of the Michigan Teachers of the Mentally Handicapped. This State award is presented each year to a person who has made a significant contribution in the field of mental retardation.

■ Herbert C. Quay, formerly of Vanderbilt University has accepted appointment as Associate Professor of Psychology at Northwestern University. Dr. Quay is the new chairman of the CEC research committe and will represent the CEC on the Council for Research in Education.

■ James F. Magary has been appointed Coordinator of Special Education at the University of Southern California. He has been an assistant professor of guidance and educational psychology at the University for the past year. Dr. Magary's immediate task will be to develop a doctoral program for training of specialists in the area of mental retardation.

■ Florence S. Dunlop, a former CEC president, retired July 1 from her position as Chief Psychologist and Supervisor of Special Classes, Public School Board, Ottawa, Ontario and has accepted a position as Professor of Special Education at San Francisco State College.

■ Syracuse University has announced the appointments of John F. Font as Administrator of the Gordon D. Hoople Hearing and Speech Center and Edward T. Donlon as Administrator of the Center for the Development of Blind Children.

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Selected Aspects of Personality Development in Mentally Retarded Children

RUE L. CROMWELL

WHEN one speaks of personality development in retarded children, he always runs the risk of implying that retarded children have uniform, if not unique, patterns of personality development. In actual practice the retarded child can best be viewed as following the same behavioral laws of personality development as the normal child. Therefore, the initial part of this article will be devoted to the review of some of the principles of learning which are fundamental to personality development in all children. Then, certain experiences occurring more frequently with the mentally retarded will be discussed in terms of how they may lead to behavior patterns somewhat more typical of their group. Finally, in the third part, theoretical formulations will be described which suggest that different rates of growth of higher level motivational systems lead to differences in personality patterns of retarded and normal children on the same chronological age level.

Behavior Pattern Development Principles

In early behavior development, seven fundamental principles seem to stand out most clearly.

1. Positive reinforcement, when given in accompaniment with any behavior, will increase the possibility of that behavior recurring. Negative reinforcement (punishment or denial of need satisfaction), when given in accompaniment with any behavior, will decrease the possibility of that behavior recurring—at least in the presence of the punishing agent.

If one wishes to develop in a child, for example, a persistence in task effort or a friendly response to strangers, he should reward or praise those behaviors succinctly when they do occur. Likewise, if the interest is in developing a pattern of temper tantrums in a child, he should give in to the child's desires at about the time the temper tantrum is at its peak. If one wishes a child to become more disinclined to walk out into a busy street or stick paper clips in an electric plug, negative reinforcement should be administered. On the other hand, if one wishes to stifle a child's curiosity or exploratory attitude, the child should be punished for getting into anything which could satiate this desire.

2. The balance of reinforcement should be on the side of the positive rather than the negative if the child is to develop more goal-directed or "approach" behavior than avoidant, defensive behavior.

In terms of what most people call personality adjustment, this principle describes the continuum or ratio of reinforcement procedures which have to do with good and poor adjustment. With the balance of reinforcement on the positive side, one would expect that a child, although having adequate defensive structure, would engage most of his behavior in satisfying, goal-seeking activity. When the balance is in the other direction, with ample punishment and deprivation and no follow-up of positive reinforcement of a desirable act or when the child corrects himself, one would expect the child to engage most of his activity in avoidance behavior—withdrawing or retaliating against people and events in the world he has learned to view as threatening.

3. Any reinforcement must be as immediate as possible for it to be effective in behavior modification.

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To "stamp in" a desirable behavior pattern—especially before the child has mastered language—one must respond with praise or reward instantly. Instant negative reinforcement to unacceptable behavior is likewise important. Ignoring a behavior or being too busy with other things to respond immediately to it reduces efficiency tremendously in molding a child's behavior patterns. The technique of letting one parent take care of the rewards and punishments after he comes home at night stands to lose all effect on influencing the original behaviors involved, although they will certainly have an effect on the child's attitudes and reactions toward that one parent.

4. Being unable to administer reinforcement on every occasion where it is appropriate does not impair efficiency in maintaining a behavior pattern.

Under a partial reinforcement regime, where a particular response is reinforced on some occasions and not reinforced or responded to on other occasions, the learning process proceeds normally according to the number of reinforcements that do occur. Nature does not penalize the parent or attendant for not being vigilant in child-rearing procedures every minute of the day. In fact, the "on-again-off-again" procedure of partial reinforcement even allows a behavior pattern to be sustained in a child longer than does the continuous reinforcement procedure during the period after which all rewards and punishments have been removed (Spradlin, 1959). With regard to developing the behavior pattern in the first place, the matter is somewhat different. Some evidence indicates that children as low as trainable mentally retarded profit most from a regime of continuous reinforcement when a behavior pattern is being initially established (Horowitz, 1960).

5. As the child starts entering the stage of mastering a language, the reasons for the positive and negative reinforcements should be verbalized both during and after they are administered, as a way of further strengthening the behavioral tendencies.

The way in which a child conceptualizes a reinforcement from a parent or attendant cannot be overestimated in its effect on the reaction of the child. All parents have had the opportunity to see a child, having been given an unexpected slap on the behind, turn and look at the parent's face in order to interpret the situation. The expression of jest or unhappiness on the parent's face has no effect whatever on the physical pain level of the slap, but it makes all the difference, even in a child not yet talking, in whether he conceptualizes the reinforcement as a positive or negative one. Being able to associate reinforcements to the concepual system of the child is perhaps the one thing which most determines how stably a child will use his conceptual processes to motivate himself—to apply his own positive and negative reinforcements to himself. Association of reinforcements with the reason for them is far more important than the actual amount of a reward or the intensity of a punishment. On the other hand, however, independent of the futility of extremely intense punishment on the child, a chance to soundly thrash a child is something which sometimes seems to do the parent, or teacher, or attendant a world of good.

6. Consistency in the administration of positive and negative reinforcements is important.

No behavior pattern which receives both positive and negative reinforcement randomly has a chance of stability. Inconsistency, as used here, means the active reinforcement of conflicting or opposing patterns of behavior. The effect of this is quite different from the "on-again-off-again" partial reinforcement of a single behavior pattern, as described in the fourth principle. The three main sources of inconsistency may be classified as occurring between parents, from situation to situation, and between word and action for the same parent or disciplining agent.

Parents may disagree in their values. One may reward the child's aggressive behavior and discourage his submissive behavior, while the other parent is doing the opposite. From situation to situation, both parents may evince their positive reactions when a child produces some four-letter Anglo-Saxon words in the home, but may wax punitive when the child follows through by cursing a waitress in a restaurant.

Inconsistencies between word and action are especially important in that they may prevent the stable association between the language mechanisms and the reinforcements received by the child. Thus, to tell Johnny continually you are going to whip him or kill him "if he doesn't stop," and he never gets whipped or killed or to tell him he will get a

present or reward and it never materializes can lead to his using language as a device of convenience and expediency rather than as a way of coping with reality on a solid conceptual basis.

7. The most important of all is the crucial practice of the administration of positive reinforcement to the child regardless of, and non-specific to, the behavior he is displaying.

Reinforcement theory has at times been criticized because it is thought to be mechanistic, responding only to bits of behavior rather than to the whole child. Although this has given rise to some facetious talk that a machine be designed to spank the whole child, there is an important point here which should be given serious attention. If a parent or other reinforcing agent does stand mechanically ready to hand out pellets of reinforcement or measures of some noxious ingredient when the pertinent behaviors occur, the chances are the child will conceptualize what stunts he is supposed to perform and which he is supposed to avoid—but he may never be able to conceptualize himself as a worthwhile or valuable individual. Only his behaviors are good or bad, not himself as an individual.

On the other hand, if the child is freely and frequently responded to in a positive way, without regard to specific behavior being acted out, he then has the opportunity to learn that he is a worthwhile and valuable individual to someone else. Regardless of what he is doing, he is reinforced because he is Johnny. And his conceiving of himself as Johnny, a positive individual, is perhaps the ultimate behavior in need of reinforcement during the developmental years. In a framework other than reinforcement theory one might refer to this type of response to the child as love. Within a reinforcement and conceptual theory framework, it is to be viewed as important as, and in my opinion can be seen with greater clarity than, in the more phenomenological self theories or dualistic theories of personality.

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Failure Experiences

With this brief digest of fundamentals governing early personality development, let us turn our attention more specifically to the retarded child. In what way are his experiences likely to mold behavior patterns which would be more typical of his group?

Within the theoretical framework described here, a most significant aspect in the experiences of a retarded child is that, by virtue of his limited capacity,[1] he would likely meet with more failure than the normal child in his day-by-day goal-directed behavior. To get a closer look at how this pattern reveals itself in clinical material, let us look at some particular cases where parents are describing their retarded children in a mental retardation clinic. In a recorded interview, one father says:

"I've noticed time and time again when we would be there getting his homework and he would say, 'I gotta get a drink of water,' and a few minutes later, 'I gotta go to the rest room,' you know . . .

"But he can sit and watch TV, and he doesn't have to have a drink."

1. There is the possibility, especially in the severely retarded, that damage in afferent and adjacent central pathways in the nervous system has blocked the input of stimulation (or the ability to perceive the stimuli) to the extent that, regardless of whether the child is in a stimulus-deprived or -enriched environment, he is existing as an organism in a state of stimulus deprivation. (Actually, perceptual deprivation might be the more appropriate term.) From this we would expect the personality manifestations which accompany such deprivation and an incomplete appreciation of the positive and negative social reinforcements from the outside world. This topic is not considered here.

In a psychological report of interviews with another set of parents, we have the following statement:

Mrs. G. admitted that since Bobby has been attending school, they "have been pushing him" to produce. "We dogged and hounded him." A description of Bobby's reaction to this "pushing" indicated that a resistive attitude had developed. Mr. G. stated that Bobby turns his head away or averts his eyes whenever an attempt is made to help him.

Meanwhile, Bobby, who was being examined in the play therapy room, would ask questions about materials but make no move to handle them. He expressed some sensitive feeling about not being in school and having a "home-bound" teacher. He is aware that other kids his age are brighter than he, and he spends more time with younger children.

These quotes illustrate a very typical pattern of how striving and highly devoted parents can promote this avoidant behavior pattern by setting standards so high as to cause excessive failure experience in areas of achievement and social adjustment. Although other parents may let the child move at his own pace, or to the other extreme, compensate and try to prevent any negative reinforcement, failure, or frustration, the pattern of frequent failure experiences seems to be the one most often presented in clinical material.

Some basic experimental studies in the personality of the mentally retarded have supported the notion that this lifelong backlog of negative reinforcement, or failure, in achieving goals brings certain behavior tendencies which can be reliably examined. For example, it has been predicted and confirmed that the initial performance level of a retarded child, when he starts a new task, will be depressed below what would be expected from his ability level (Heber, 1957). Also, he will be less aroused by failure or negative reinforcement during task performance. He is already expecting it, so it has less effect on his behavior than on the behavior of the normal child (Gardner, 1958). Moreover, once having failed, the retarded child is less likely than the normal to have reinforced in him the tendency to "try harder next time." The likelihood is greater in the retarded than in the normal to withdraw rather than to increase effort after initial failure (Gardner, 1958).

Still another factor involves the immediate sequence of success experience followed by a failure experience. After the retarded child has had his hopes momentarily raised by success experience, a subsequent failure experience seems to have an especially marked negative effect—much more than in the normal child (Gardner, 1957, 1958; Ringelheim, 1958; Miller, 1961). Thus, with these separate researches, it appears that personality or behavior patterns develop in many retarded children which tend to lower their social and intellectual efficiency a measure below what we would already expect on the basis of their constitutional impairments.

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Motivational Systems

This part of the article will be devoted to a discussion of the personality of retarded children in terms of the motivational systems which present themselves during the developmental years. The evolution of this thinking has been contributed to by Moss (1958), Bialer (1960), Miller (1961), Butterfield, and others who have done research and worked on various aspects of the theory formulation. As an introduction, it is necessary to describe in a simplified form some of the assumptions underlying the development of the thinking.

Approach and avoidance tendencies. It is perhaps already apparent from the earlier part of this paper that a distinction has been made here between approach and avoidance motivational systems. The distinction might be viewed in contrast to the notion that all motivational components (states of deprivation and/or unpleasant stimulation) should be summated to define a single generalized drive. That is to say, it is looked upon here as more meaningful and useful to distinguish between

the approach and the avoidance aspects of motivation than to view behavior as arising from one single source of motivation. In so doing, it is hoped that one can gain some increased understanding of the sequences of directional behavior which each person has, as he moves in his environment away from certain objects and situations and, at the same time, toward other objects and situations.[2] For example, ambivalence in starting a particular task could be explained by equal and opposing tendencies to approach and to avoid.

The earlier motivational system. The next assumption is that it is useful to distinguish between the motivational system based on the biological drive structure of the organism and the later developed motivational system (or systems) involving conceptualized goals of success-striving and failure-avoiding, which are not linked directly to the more primitive biological motivational system. This earlier biologically based motivational system is well described in animal research on learning, based on both primary and secondary rewards. It is viewed as common to the human and lower forms. Within the present framework of description, it would be identified and described in terms of behavior sequences which approach those objects and events which are either biologically drive-satisfying themselves, or originally neutral but have acquired approach value through direct association with the biologically satisfying events. Likewise included would be those behavior sequences which avoid events and objects which are noxious in a biological context or neutral originally, but which have gained avoidance value through their association with the noxious objects and events. For this reason, this system might be labeled the "pleasure-approach and pain-avoidance" system. It is restricted to those biological and learned incentives which are available in the "here-and-now" of a given situation.

The later motivational system. To be distinguished from the original one, the later motivational system would be described as follows: rather than approaching objects and events because of the inherent or acquired "here-now" properties in the situation, approach behavior is carried out for the express goal of demonstrating the behavioral effectiveness of the individual. Likewise, avoidance behavior is carried out in response to those situations where personal behavioral effectiveness is threatened. Consequently, this broad motivational system, so delineated, might be described as the "success-approach and failure-avoidance" system. Exactly what is approached in the environment in the way of biological and learned goals may vary from simple food-getting behavior, on the one hand, to complex social goals of recognition, love and affection, and academic achievement on the other hand. Common to all of these would be the striving of the individual to demonstrate and to conceptualize himself as personally successful in the goal-directed endeavor in which he is involved.

Contrasting the two systems. The earlier one is oriented toward getting the hedonistically positive satisfactions in life which make the immediate situations either satisfying or unpleasant, while the later system is oriented toward success, in the sense of personal effectiveness. It can readily be seen that for most situations we experience in adult life, the two systems are congruent with each other. That is, the situations which are pleasurable and satisfying are also likely to be associated with personal success in some way or other. The situations which are unpleasant or non-satisfying are likely to be associated with failure in some way or other. However, the crucial situations with regard to our present formulation are when the two systems are oriented in "opposing" directions—when one has to forego the immediate pleasures and satisfactions of a situation in order to see himself as successful or, when a person, in choosing the immediate pleasures of a situation, must see himself as having failed.

The later system does not replace the earlier system but rather is elaborated gradually from it. (see Figure 1). Because of the involvement of the later system in the conceptual behavior of the individual, one would not expect a counterpart of this system in the non-language-bearing organisms (i.e., in animals other than human beings). The developmental phenomenon described here may be viewed as similar to other behavioral and conceptual changes described in the child during the same peri-

2. This movement (of all organisms) toward and away from certain objects and situations gives a theoretical basis for defining such concepts as negative (or, threat) objects, positive (or, goal) objects, approach behavior, avoidance behavior, etc. This approach follows from the field theory of Kantor (1958) and the approach-avoidance notions will be recognized as highly similar to those of Miller and Dollard (1950).

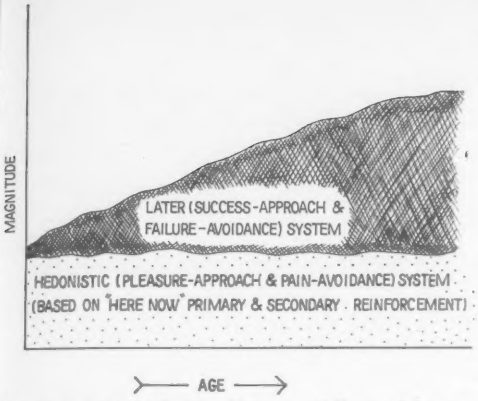
MAGNITUDE
LATER (SUCCESS-APPROACH & FAILURE-AVOIDANCE) SYSTEM
HEDONISTIC (PLEASURE-APPROACH & PAIN-AVOIDANCE) SYSTEM
(BASED ON "HERE NOW" PRIMARY & SECONDARY REINFORCEMENT)
AGE

Figure 1. Relative Roles of Later and Earlier Motivational Systems

od of life (e.g., by Piaget, 1954).

Origin of each system. How do these two motivational systems evolve in the individual? During an individual's life, a repertory of behavior is being built up with regard to what responses have the highest potentials of acquiring what types of goals in what types of stimulus situations, and what types of stimulus objects are acquiring positive and negative value. These are all related to the earlier motivational system. Simultaneously, however, the organism is involved in another associative learning process. The outcomes of the directional behavior sequences of the organism, where the individual has either attained or failed to attain the goals or subgoals in his behavioral attempt are fed back. They become associated with the behavior the individual has just carried out, the thinking or conceptualizing he was doing at the time he received the terminal reinforcement, and with the labels and concepts which were expressed by other people around him as he was carrying out his activity. Without attempting to explain how this feedback process initiates the later motivational system, it is assumed here that the magnitude of the later system develops as a function of the degree to which the child can associate and conceptualize satisfying or rewarding events to his own behavioral effectiveness. In contrast, to the extent that he associates his satisfying and rewarding experiences to the efforts of other people, to other forces or powers outside himself, or to sheer fortuitous circumstance, the later motivational system would not be expected to develop with as great a magnitude.

How does one measure the strength or magnitude of this later motivational system? This problem is no easy one. It has already been pointed out that the two motivational systems, so conceived, would be oriented together in the typical situations in which the individual lives. Successful situations are most often viewed as pleasant; failure situations as unpleasant in immediate gratifications, as indicated in the dotted areas of Figure 2. The opportunity to distinguish the two, therefore lies only in situations where this congruence or confounding does not exist. This would be in those situations where "success" or behavioral effectiveness demands the endurance of some deprivation or noxious stimulation in the immediate situation and where the acceptance of immediate gratification in the situation would be conceptualized as "failure." These are exemplified by the checked areas in Figure 2. The classic instance of such a type of situation would be the delay of gratification. Thus, a measure of the ability to delay immediate gratification for a later and larger reward would be a basis for theoretical inference about the magnitude of the later motivational system.

Merely asking the child or adult about it is another avenue, and a more direct one, by which to assess the later motivational system. If one assumes that the growing child develops increasing associations of goal attainments with his own behavioral effectiveness, and conceptualizes his own "success" and "failure" capacities as a result of these associations, he should be able to answer questions about the degree to which he sees himself in control of events about him, as opposed to seeing them as externally controlled. This questionnaire type of measurement has been developed into what is now known as the "locus of control" or "internal-external control" scales (Phares, 1955; James, 1957; Bialer, 1960; and Liverant, personal communication).

Research with theory formulation. Bialer (1960), in his recent research using this theoretical formulation, investigated the relationship between the delay of gratification measure and the locus of control measure in 89 mentally retarded and normal children ranging the developmental span from six to 14 years chronologically and four to 16 years in mental age. The theoretical formulation led

Bialer to the following hypotheses:

1. The locus of control and delay of gratification measures should be correlated with each other, independent of the mental age (MA) and chronological age (CA) of the child. This assumes that the same underlying (later) motivational system is being tapped with each measure.

2. The two measures should increase in magnitude with the increasing age of the child. This would mean that, as the later motivational system develops with increasing age, there would be an increasing tendency to choose a delayed rather than immediate gratification and to see events as internally controlled.

3. This developmental trend would be more closely linked to MA change than CA change. It is assumed here that the conceptual development of the individual, rather than the mere accrual of experiences, is the more relevant factor.

Bialer's findings supported these hypotheses, and consequent support is therefore offered for the notions about the development of the success-striving motivational system. In fact, with respect to the third hypothesis, it was found that MA carried all the predictive weight, in the developmental trend of the delay of gratification and locus of control. CA had no relationship when the effects of MA were partialled out.

Another behavioral measure, the tendency of a child to choose to repeat a previously successful or previously failed task, was also predicted to be positively clustered with the delay of gratification and locus of control measures, but this prediction was not upheld. Instead of being related to the development of the underlying motivational system, the results indicated it was more closely related to the approach and avoidance delay functions involved in the Zeigarnik and Rosenzweig task recall and task repetition research.

Possible implications with children. What do these findings mean with respect to the theory formulation and what do they mean to personality development in mentally retarded and normal children? Let us speculate. A prime implication is that the tendency to conceptualize "success" and "failure," and be motivated with respect to them, as adults are, is something which has to develop gradually in the child and which cannot be assumed during the early years of childhood. The younger child will be expected to respond more hedonistically to the immediate gratification of primary and secondary drives. He would profit to a greater degree from learning experiences involving immediate goal attainment and noncompetitive activities. Situations involving competition, frustration, and deprivation, the younger child would view as merely painful things to avoid rather than seeing them on a dimension of success-failure.

As he grows older, however, he should respond more and more to experiences in terms of their success-failure meanings. He should receive and be able to profit from failure, competition, and deprivation in moderate doses. He should be able to use these experiences in a motivated way to develop higher level skills of increased and variable striving in reaction to failure. In other words, the emphases which have been made by many educators to give the child all possible success experience, or, on the other hand, to enforce high standards and produce high motivations, are each gross over-simplifications

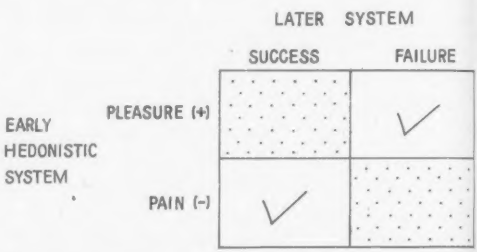

Figure 2. Diagram of Congruence and Incongruence of the Two Motivational Systems

if applied to children without regard to developmental level. One must consider the child as a changing personality with respect to his ability to conceptualize success and failure.

How might one make sure this change in conceptualization progresses at the rate it should? No teacher or parent is with a child or in control of his experiences twenty-four hours a day, so not everything can be accomplished which one might wish. However, the formulation leaves a strong suggestion that the later motivational system would progress in its development with increased experiences where the child credits himself with accomplishments of activities which he has actually accomplished. To help the child verbalize his own accomplishment

would be important, whether the accomplishment be a learning task, a chore at home, a friendly social response, an attempt at reasoning about a problem, or what have you. To "pat him on the back" for something he has not done or, on the other hand, to pressure him into some activity where he could not realize any personal effectiveness would likely be detrimental to the conceptual development. Also, after some guidance, coaxing, or maneuvering, a teacher or parent may wish to take the "credit" for a child's accomplishment rather than allowing him to see it as his own achievement. This "credit-taking" by the teacher or parent may be satisfying to her needs and might even be somewhat appropriate but it might not allow the child to see and verbalize the role of himself as important in what he consented to try and to do.

The major implication with respect to the mentally retarded is that, normatively, this development of the later system would occur at a slower rate, more parallel to his mental age than his chronological age growth. Thus, in the classroom and social learning situations the average retarded child cannot be assumed to have the personality and conceptual maturity of a normal child the same age. The emphasis on immediate gratification and success experiences, the emphasis on building in concepts of success and failure, and the withholding of pressures and standards which he cannot yet understand in terms of personal effectiveness would have to be carried on in years beyond that for the normal child. Finally, when the retarded child can demonstrate evidence of the later system of motivation, the need for the "moderated-failure" experiences would be as important for him as for the normal child in the optimal development of personality functioning.

Summary

This paper has been an attempt to show how personality development in the retarded child may be viewed from a theoretical framework involving learning and social learning theory. It has been pointed out that the same basic laws of learning apply to the personality development of all children. It has been further discussed as to how experiences of failure may be more prevalent among retarded children and may lead to passive avoidant behavior, lack of responsiveness to failure, and decreased effort in the face of failure.

Finally, some brief aspects of a theoretical formulation were presented. It was suggested that the growth of a higher level motivational system of success-striving and the ability to see experiences in terms of success-failure meanings develop gradually with age and conceptual ability of the child. Different rates of growth are expected in retarded and normal individuals. The personality differences which would be expected as a function of these different growth rates have been discussed as important in the child's educative and social learning processes.

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SAFETY EDUCATION FOR CHILDREN WITH AUDITORY HANDICAPS

JOHN E. TAYLOR

THERE is no formula which teachers or parents can follow that is guaranteed to protect children from accidents. Much information, of course, is available about the prevention of childhood accidents. If such information is correctly applied in a safety education program for auditory handicapped children, a workable formula for child safety can be provided.

Studies indicate that certain types of accidents are more likely to occur at one stage of a child's development than at another. With this knowledge, plus information as to the degree of the child's loss in hearing, it is possible for teachers and parents to provide a program of safety education built around the child's handicapping condition.

It is very important for teachers and parents to understand the necessity for young children to touch, to feel, and to investigate. For the youngster five and under, life is an adventure of tasting, chewing, swallowing, and smelling. Because of their impaired hearing, inexperience, and lack of understanding, these spirited youngsters may injure themselves or others. Accident statistics pinpoint the vital need for teaching, directing, and helping these individuals to continue their healthful, busy activities in safe and constructive ways.

The same amount of curiosity exists with young deaf children as with young hearing children. A deaf child is interested in what is in the medicine cabinet, will dart across a street, play too close to a stove, *etc.* It is not because of the loss in hearing that he does these things; rather, it is because he is just a child.

Children are never free from accidents; but those with auditory handicaps are particularly susceptible to accidents because of their inability to hear warning sounds; such as, an automobile horn, a train whistle, a fire bell, the hissing of steam from a hot radiator, the sound of high-speed machinery, *etc.* The young deaf child is not only handicapped because of his lack of hearing but also because of his inability to understand explanations that might be spoken or written. The deaf child misses the avenues of learning opened to others who possess normal hearing. These children miss many of the aids that enable others to interpret the world around them. They miss the explanations of the "whys" and the "whats."

It is sound reasoning in speculating that the deaf have keener visual acuity and sharper powers of observation than individuals who possess normal hearing. The hearing impaired are threatened because of the sensory defect and, thereby, are challenged to utilize their remaining resources at the highest possible degree of efficiency. The loss of hearing encourages a re-adjustment of the dynamic system, thereby causing the hearing impaired individual to behave in a qualitatively different manner in order that he may adjust and survive.[1]

In the child with normal hearing, vision and hearing "team up" as distance senses. Vision is directed to the foreground and hearing encompasses the background as well as the entire environment. The objects and activities that are directly before the child are related through vision. Hearing extends to the total environment, functions night and day, around corners, and into the dark; however, in cases where the child doesn't hear normally, vision and perhaps the sense of smell must serve to inform the individual of objects and activities

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[1]Helmer R. Myklebust and Milton Brutten, *A Study of the Visual Perception of Deaf Children.* Acta-oto-larying (supple. 105, 1953).

that are in both the background and foreground. In children whose sense of hearing doesn't function normally, the kinesthetic sense is highly developed. It is, however, difficult for children with impaired hearing to keep in contact with their environment and to explore and know it fully. With the auditory sense impaired, the visual, kinesthetic, and tactile senses, and whatever residual hearing is present, must be utilized to compensate for the acoustic loss.

We have heard about the tragic influences of traffic accidents, home accidents, and school accidents; and we know the danger of poisons, falling, water sports, bicycle riding, walking along the highway, gas, fire, games, and sports. However, there must be a confident and enthusiastic approach through the home and school in teaching safety education to hearing impaired children.

The question is not whether safety education is important to this group of handicapped children; rather, it is how and by what procedure should this vital area be covered. It presents certain problems as to how teachers and parents should go about instructing these children in safety education.

Safety education of the acoustically handicapped should be so organized that these children would not have to avoid certain environments because of accidents that might happen. The better approach would be to train them in certain patterns of living so that the accidents associated with children with impaired hearing can be eliminated.

Special education plays a vital role in an overall program of safety education for deaf children. This program should include (a) instructions to parents of preschool deaf children as to procedures they might follow in the home, and (b) the operation of a safety education program in the schools where these children attend.

Role of the School

A recent concept of safety education places emphasis on (a) helping boys and girls to understand the hazards inherent in situations or emergencies in which they will find themselves, and (b) on teaching various ways of meeting those hazards without incurring personal injury. Teachers and pupils should find, analyze, and attempt to solve existing problems in safety which are of significance to hearing impaired persons.

The organization of a program of safety teaching to auditory handicapped children consists of the following aspects:

1. Administrators must be interested in organizing and maintaining a safe environment. Rules and regulations concerning safety should be in printed form and should be distributed among all school employees. These rules and regulations should also be posted in the various departments of the school; such as, classroom bulletin boards, dormitories, vocational department shops, infirmary, gymnasium, *etc.* Safety education should be on the agenda of one or more of the staff meetings during the year. It is up to the administrator to check frequently to see that these rules and regulations are being practiced. New employees should be informed of the safety regulations of the school.

2. All school personnel must participate in teaching safety. Not only should there be a safe environment, but safety should be taught by all the school personnel to all the children. The houseparent, vocational teacher, coach, and nurse are as much involved in teaching safety to the deaf child as is the classroom teacher.

3. The safety program or plan that is developed for the school should permit safety teaching to be challenging, realistic, and sequential; and it should be based on sound principles of child development.

4. For each grade, there should be certain units on safety education that are incorporated in the curriculum. These units should be set up to provide progression in safety education parallel to the living experiences of hearing impaired children at each grade level.

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flashing red lights in addition to sound alarms for fire drills. This equipment is a must and should be checked frequently to maintain working order. Each child should be thoroughly instructed as to the meaning of the flashing red lights. If a new student is enrolled during the school year, it should be an established procedure to inform him of the warning devices of the school.

6. Fire drills should be practiced frequently. When or where a fire might occur is unknown; therefore, fire drills should be practiced when the children are in various places of the school environment.

7. Adequate visual aid materials such as films, pictures, posters, slides, and charts should be available and regularly used by the staff.

8. Guidance of pupils in developing safety awareness is very essential. Dramatizations and demonstrations can be used with great success in making deaf children aware of what might happen if, for example, they were not cautious when around high-speed machinery.

9. The school should offer instructions to parents as to what they can do in the home in order to participate in the overall program of safety education. Most schools for the deaf conduct conferences for parents of preschool deaf children at which time this vital topic could be discussed. A few suggestions to make to parents are as follows: (a) Utilize the child's vision whenever possible; (b) Use gestures and facial expressions as well as the spoken word to inform the child that he is not to do certain things; (c) Survey the child's play area to determine whether all objects are safe for play; (d) Leave a night light on in the child's bedroom; (e) Have frequent home fire drills. (Safe exits from every room should be shown to the child); and (f) Keep dangerous medicines and objects out of the child's reach.

Children with impaired hearing should be instructed in safety education; but because of the language barrier and the inability to hear most sounds, this task is complicated. Through special techniques of instruction and special equipment, these children can be taught to understand and cope with the many hazards present in their environment. Through this special instruction in safety education, knowledge and attitudes will be developed which will enable them to lead safe lives.

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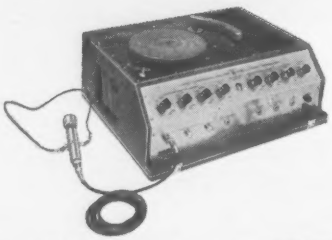

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Detecting Psychological Symptoms of Brain Injury

HARRY S. BECK

DURING the past ten or fifteen years educators have become increasingly aware of the existence of the brain injured child, especially in association with remedial and special education programs. There has been a growing awareness, too, of the need for better program planning for these children in both academic and non-academic areas, in and out of school.

Although a medical diagnosis of brain injury may not be of great importance, from a strictly pedagogical point of view, it is important from the standpoint of medical therapy which may make the child more accessible or amenable to learning, and in terms of prognosis for development.

As educators we are particularly interested in the psychological symptoms in terms of planning an educational program for these children. It should be pointed out that there are both psychological and physical symptoms associated with brain injury, and that traditionally the diagnosis has been based primarily upon the physical symptoms (i.e., neurological examinations, electroencephalograms, pneumoencephalograms, x-rays, etc.).

In effect, then, a medically diagnosed brain injured child will usually display some psychological symptoms, but a child displaying these symptoms may not necessarily be brain injured from a medical viewpoint. This is certainly not the most desirable state of affairs, but it nevertheless represents the present situation. This point is brought up because it may well be that any correlation which exists between the so-called psychological symptoms of brain injury and medically or physically determined brain injury is an associative relationship, rather than a cause-effect relationship.

This article is primarily concerned with the effects of brain injury in children who show no gross muscular involvements such as some of the cerebral palsied. The emphasis is upon those cases that Strauss and Lehtinen (1950) refer to as exogenous, and Doll (1951a) classifies under neurophrenia. In these children the injury usually occurs before, during, or shortly after birth, and the children are more often than not considered to be problems of behavior or learning. According to Bender (1956) they usually are referred to clinics for some reason other than the brain injury itself.

The problem is, of course, to gain a better understanding of the particular symptoms which these children present and to determine whether there is a definite syndrome of symptoms characteristic of brain injury in children. Another aspect of the problem is concerned with the validity, in terms of medical agreement, of psychological tests for detecting this condition.

It was felt that the best approach would be to survey the literature and summarize the findings of some of the outstanding writers in this area. In this way it could be determined, to some extent, the amount of agreement among those writers concerning the symptoms of brain injury and their detection.

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Extent of Problem

Although it is becoming more and more apparent that the brain injured child exists in greater numbers than was suspected a few years back, the full extent of the problem is not known. Beck (1956) estimates that at least 60 to 70 percent of all educable mentally handicapped school children are brain injured, and Gesell and Amatruda (1954) estimate that the brain injured comprise one-fifth of all cases of amentia and over one-third of the motor disabilities of crippled children. The number of cases having normal or better intelligence whose difficulties are manifested by personality problems, reading disabilities, and the like is unknown. Courville (1950) states that some degree of injury occurs during delivery in probably more cases than is commonly appreciated.

In reading literature describing the brain injured child, it is not difficult to see that the various writers are talking about the same type of child. In other words, it can be readily seen that the child being described is one whom we know from experience to be brain injured. Yet when listing the actual symptoms described by these authors, no two lists are exactly alike. In all, 43 symptoms were found, with one writer listing 32, and another mentioning only six.

This, however, does not represent as great a diversity as it would appear on the surface. A great deal of the disparity results from the fact that some writers use very specific terms such as dysphasia and dysarthria, while another groups them together under language disorders. Another source of difficulty results from the fact that different authors are writing for different purposes. Strauss and Lehtinen (1950), for example, are quite definitive and describe a number of brain injured children displaying different symptoms. Yacorzynski (1951), on the other hand, describes some specific disabilities such as those found in cases with frontal lobe involvements. As a consequence, it is almost impossible to compare these writings for the purpose of making a normative study. However, these different authors would probably be in agreement on any given case.

By grouping some of the more specific symptoms under more general headings, one finds that the majority of writers are fairly well agreed on 15 categories. List No. 2 indicates the symptoms most commonly agreed upon by Strauss and Lehtinen (1950), Doll (1951a), Carmichael (1954), Tredgold (1952), Goldstein (1954), Bender (1956), Gesell and Amatruda (1954), and Yacorzynski (1951).

List No. 1
Symptoms Ascribed to Brain Injured Children by Various Writers

distractibility
perseveration
catastrophic reaction
temper tantrums
disorganization
visual perceptual difficulties
conceptual difficulties
detail consciousness
difficulty in spatial visualization
concrete thinking
difficulty in auditory perception
dysarthria
dysphasia
agnosia
apraxia
impulsiveness
compulsions
disinhibition
poor motor coordination
difficulty in visual imagery
poor ability to anticipate
over-responsive to stimuli
disparity in development
hyperactivity
difficulty in symbolization
animistic thinking
emotional instability
insecurity
daydreaming
irritability
difficulty in forming associations
confused laterality
poor retention
convulsions
mental deficiency
lack of insight
fatigability
rigidity
abnormal stimulus boundness
poor body image and identification
anxiety
clinging behavior
destructiveness

List No. 2
Symptoms of Brain Injury Indicated by the Majority of Writers

perseveration
distractibility
disorganization or lack of integration
perceptual difficulties
conceptual difficulties
language disorders
motor incoordination
disparity in development
hyperactivity
emotional instability
insecurity
irritability
convulsions
mental deficiency
poor retention

Doll (1951a) has summed up the situation rather well with his statement that it is not feasible at this time to delineate either the neurological antecedents or the behavior sequelae with definitive exactness, but rather, this must be left to further experience, observation, and research.

Although there is considerable agreement as far as the various symptoms are concerned, there is no indication that any given symptom must of necessity be present in any given case of brain

injury. Kephart states, "In general the association of specific psychological symptoms with brain pathology has not been successful. It would appear that brain damage, except in specific motor and sensory areas, leads to a disturbance of the integration of behavior rather than to the development of isolated symptoms."[1]

This is not too surprising, when one stops to consider that in most cases the injuries are minimal and diffused and that different areas and functions of the brain are affected to differing degrees in various individuals. Then, too, the inherent make up of the brain and its ability to resist, repair, or compensate damage varies from one child to another. Gesell and Amatruda (1954) indicate that the consequences of very slight injury are greatly aggravated by emotional sensitivity in the child and by faulty environment and care. They further state that in infants and young children the symptomatology of nervous disease tends to be diffuse rather than localized, and it is this diffuseness that accounts for the injury to intellect and to personality that so often accompanies affections of the nervous system in infancy and childhood.

This then brings us to Strauss and Lehtinen's (1950, p. 4) definition: "A brain injured child is a child who before, during, or after birth has received an injury to or suffered an infection of the brain. As a result of such organic impairment, defects of the neuromotor system may be present or absent; however, such a child may show disturbances in perception, thinking, and emotional behavior, either separately or in combination." It seems to the writer that this definition is a good summary of the situation as it presently exists.

Since, as we have seen, the symptoms of brain injury can be quite varied, and as they do not necessarily fall into any given pattern, certain implications become apparent with regard to psychological testing. To begin with, we are faced with the problem of determining whether any of these symptoms exist, which means that an extremely large number of abilities and a wide range of behavior need to be sampled and evaluated. This would imply that a shotgun type of approach be used in the beginning, followed up by more specific techniques in those areas which are suspected as pathological. If this be true, then it becomes necessary to evaluate both general tests or test batteries, and specific tests or tests of specific functions.

[1] This statement was taken from a personal communication with Dr. N. D. Kephart.

General vs. Specific Tests

With regard to general tests, Strauss and Lehtinen (1950) have stated that, with few exceptions, there does not exist at this moment, a pattern or a type of response characteristic and specific for the brain injured defective child on standardized tests of intelligence, academic achievement, and visuo-motor performance. Beck and Lam (1955), using a public school group of mentally handicapped children, found that the WISC Performance IQ's and WISC Full Scale IQ's of organics were significantly lower than those of non-organics. In the organic group the Performance IQ's tended to be lower than the Verbal IQ's, whereas the non-organics showed a reverse pattern. There was no characteristic patterning of subtest scores, however.

On the other hand, Newman and Loos (1955), using an institutional population, found that organics show no difference in WISC Verbal and Performance IQ's but that organics do have lower Performance IQ's than do familials and undifferentiated groups. Haines (1954) did a study using the Merrill-Palmer Scale of Mental Tests and concluded that it was not useful for the differential diagnosis of brain injured children from problem or foster home children. Berko (1955) found that exogenous mentally handicapped children had a significantly larger scattering of misses on the Stanford-Binet items than endogenous mentally retarded children. On the basis of these studies, it would seem that disparities in the child's development are reflected in the child's performance on the WISC and Stanford-Binet, which may suggest, to the examiner, the possibility of brain injury.

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On tests designed to evaluate more specific functions, there is also more doubt than certainty as to their validity in differentiating between brain injured and non-brain injured. Most of them do not stand up under rigorous statistical analysis. Yates (1954) reviewed some of the more commonly used qualitative and quantitative tests and noted that most of them are subject to criticism. He found only two tests that seemed to differentiate organics consistently. One was the Block Design Rotation Test, and the other was the Manual and Finger Dexterity Tests of the U. S. Employment Service Battery. Unfortunately these tests are designed and/or standardized on adults and not children. Strauss and Kephart (1950) also studied some of the tests commonly used with children and concluded that the validation of tests of this sort was still incomplete. One of the main objections was that there had been no systematic attempt to differentiate brain injured from emotionally disturbed children. Of all the tests studied, the two most promising were the Ellis Visual Designs and the "Method" or "Approach" score on the Marble Board Test. These two were far superior to the others.

Inasmuch as most tests are lacking in statistical validity as predictors or indicators of brain injury, it is interesting to note Goldstein's (1954, p. 114) comment on this situation: "In pathology, results of examinations can be evaluated only by analyzing the procedure by which the patient has arrived at his results. This precludes any statistical comparison with the results of normal subjects. Any quantitative rating, as to success and failure by use of the usual tests, constitutes an infinite source of error." It would seem then that diagnosis is, at its present stage of development, more of an art than a science, and consequently the diagnosis must necessarily be a function of the examiner and not the tests.

Yates (1954) feels that the basic flaw in most of the tests of brain damage lies in the theoretical approach. Instead of employing the theory that brain damage results in deterioration, he suggests that what is needed is a theory which is exclusive to brain damage. Strauss and Kephart (1950), on the other hand, seem to feel that what is needed is further development and refinement of some of the tests presently in use.

The big problem in differential diagnosis seems to lie in the ability, or lack of ability, of tests to distinguish between organic brain damage and emotional disturbances. This, however, assumes that the symptoms are the same, or can be the same, in both conditions. If this be so, then it would seem impossible to devise a test to distinguish between the two conditions, since the overt behavior which the test measures would be the same in either case.

Functional Brain Impairment

At this point the writer would raise the question as to whether or not it is actually possible to get the same identical symptoms, or constellation of symptoms, in both conditions, or whether the apparent confusion is the result of our inability to make an adequate medical diagnosis. This also brings up the question of the possibility of functional brain impairment. If, for example, an individual developed an emotional disturbance, which resulted in some change in body chemistry, this might conceivably result in electrical changes in the brain, which in turn might affect its functioning.

In fact, Darrow (1950, p. 59) states, ". . . feed back effects which, when they act moderately, appear to provide regulation of the central nervous system, but which, when they become excessive in

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strong emotion, may produce relative functional decortication." Darrow (1950 a, p. 248) also states. "Furthermore, if these mechanisms are operative during the child's early stages of rapid growth and development, it is easy to understand how chronic states of emotional perturbation not only may alter the normal activity of the brain but may even prevent its normal development." If this is possible, then final diagnosis may depend upon the determination of the reversibility of the condition.

It would seem that Yates (1954) has put his finger on the crux of the whole situation. If psychological tests are going to be employed to determine the etiology of malfunction, then it is necessary to determine functions which are characteristic of, and peculiar to, the precise etiological factor in question. This may prove to be a formidable problem in the light of present knowledge. This is particularly true, when even medical or physical diagnosis of brain disorder is based on inferences as the result of the neurologist's evaluation of the individual's functioning. Actually medicine is, to some extent, faced with the same problem as psychology, and until better means are found to make the medical determinations, it is doubtful how far psychological testing can be extended.

From a practical point of view, the outlook perhaps is not as dismal as the theoretical considerations would suggest. In the case of a child we are concerned with several problems, all of which can be dealt with fairly well regardless of the theoretical problems. For example, neurological examination, plus E.E.G.'s, X-rays, penumoencephalograms, etc., can determine fairly well whether or not there are any major injuries, tumors, convulsive disorders, etc., and, if so, the proper procedures can be instituted. If medical evaluation definitely reveals damage then, of course, there is no problem of diagnosis. The problem then becomes one of determining the desirability of medication or other therapy, and the prognosis for future development.

If, on the other hand, the medical diagnosis is uncertain or negative, then the problem is whether or not there is damage which is medically undetectable. This is the dilemma with which we are faced in trying to prescribe adequate emotional and educational procedures, therapy, rehabilitation, and the like. Actually this doesn't present too great a problem, since the same procedure can be used in either case. The greatest difficulties resulting from this sort of situation might be some loss of time, and injury to the ego of the psychologist, if after treatment, the diagnosis turned out to be different than he predicted.

If the child displayed emotional or behavior problems, they would be handled about the same in either case. If he displayed learning difficulties suggestive of brain injury, he would be taught with techniques designed to overcome these difficulties. If a child displayed difficulty in perception or concept formation, the teaching techniques would be the same whether he turned out to be brain injured or not. When one considers the practical aspects of the situation, it then becomes apparent that present psychological techniques, especially if they can be more fully developed and refined, can be of real value as far as treatment is concerned.

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A Comparison of Delinquent and Nondelinquent Vocational Interests

DANIEL F. NOVAK

CAN groups of delinquent and nondelinquent boys be differentiated on the basis of measured interest patterns? This issue is of no idle concern. Interest patterns often reflect satisfaction of individual needs. Can interest patterns, however, unmask predispositions to react sociopathetically to environmental stimulations? Interest patterns, too, may point to eventual vocational preferences. Inasmuch as such decisions reflect attitudes toward society and a willingness to contribute to its welfare and perpetuation, are the vocational preferences of the delinquent so defined for himself that such objectives are of no consequence to him? Are the interest patterns, and ipso factor vocational preferences of the delinquent, so characteristically vague that personal and social maladjustment may be presumed to be inevitable?

The posing of queries like these should not convey to the reader that delinquency is a function of interest patterns intrinsic to vocational preferences. Delinquency is a constellation of a large variety of factors, among which interest factors may be included. But what is the nature of the role of interests in this constellation? A systematic investigation of interests facilitates the discovery of an answer. Information is collected whereby the base of understanding the delinquent can be broadened. New facets are cut, as it were, so that the inner components of the delinquent orientation may be objectively observed.

Moreover, such inquiries, as posed above, are not new in the sense that they have not been asked by varied disciplines. The answers obtained, however, are conspicuous for the want of agreement among educational, psychological, and sociological investigators. It seems, then, that a survey of interests among delinquent and nondelinquent boys would not be meaningful unless attention was also given to factors believed to be important determinants of vocational interests, i.e., physical traits, mental endowment, environment, age, education, socio-economic status and occupation of the parents. The present study was accordingly designed and conducted assuming the validity of this premise.

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Subjects and Methods

Fifty delinquent *Ss* were recruited from the Illinois State Training School for Boys, St. Charles, Illinois. Fifty nondelinquent *Ss* were selected from four high schools, three public and one parochial, each located in a different area of Chicago. As far as it was possible nondelinquent *Ss* were paired with delinquent *Ss* in terms of age, placement in school, IQ, father's occupation and residential area. The matched *Ss* generally had lived within a radius of one mile.

To be included in the study, a grade placement reading comprehension score of at least 8.4 on the Stanford Achievement Test was required (Stefflre, 1947). Moreover, all *Ss* were without such physical deformities as could possibly influence vocational preference.

Both delinquent and nondelinquent *Ss* were white male high school students between the ages of 15 and 17. The arithmetic mean ($\overline{X}$) of the chronological age of *Ss* in each group was 16.6 years and the standard deviation (s) was 0.68. The $\overline{X}$ of the grade placement for the delinquent group was 9.7 with a s of 0.73; and the $\overline{X}$ for the nondelinquent group was 11.2 with a s of 0.69.

In the delinquent group the IQ as measured by the Wechsler Bellevue Intelligence Scale ranged from 90 to 127. In the nondelinquent group, mea-

sures of intelligence were available for 39 students on the Kulhmann-Anderson, the range of which extended from 95 to 121; for the remaining 11 students on the 1937 revision of the Stanford-Binet, Form L, the range extended from 93 to 133. Because of the different instruments involved in quantifying this variable, the qualitative correlatives of the measurements, namely, average, superior, and very superior, were used in pairing *Ss* in the two groups. As a rule, *Ss* in a pair did not differ from each other by more than six points.

Since the father's occupation influences the vocational selection of a male adolescent, an attempt was made to match *Ss* whose fathers were employed in similar occupational areas. Kuder (1951, pp. 21-25) had classified such areas in accordance with the United States Census Bureau Reports. According to this classificatory schema, the fathers of paired *Ss* were engaged in highly related occupations, like craftsman, clerical, mechanical and service workers. None of the families were dependent on public or private social welfare agencies for support.

Data relevant to the delinquent *Ss* were gleaned from the records at the training school where they had been committed, from social case histories, and from interviews with social workers and psychologists at the school. Information concerning the nondelinquent *Ss* was obtained from school records and from interviews with teachers. Nondelinquent *Ss* were chosen after the delinquent group had already been formed, so that the characteristics of the two groups would be comparable. In addition, qualification in the nondelinquent group required a negative reply from school officials to the following question: *To your knowledge, are any of the individuals selected guilty of incorrigibility, truancy, auto theft, burglary, or any other misdemeanor or infraction that, if brought to the attention of civil authorities, would provide a basis for classifying the student as delinquent?*

The Kuder Preference Record, Form CH, (KPR) was administered in small groups to the delinquent *Ss* at the Training School. Standard instructions for administration of this test were used. To allay the anxiety of the *Ss*, all questions relative to the testing procedure were answered. Ample time was allowed for the administration of the test. After the delinquent subjects had been tested, the writer obtained KPR profiles from the nondelinquent group.

Results

For the purpose of interpretation, the obtained raw score on each of the scales in the KPR is converted into a centile equivalent, so that the measured interest profile will be meaningful. In this study, however, both the raw score and its centile equivalent were used in different analyses to evaluate differences in measured interests. Two analyses were completed.

Differences in raw scores on each scale between the two groups of *Ss* were tested separately for statistical significance. The results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

X's and Correlated t-ratios in the Comparison of Delinquent (D) and Nondelinquent (N) Boys on the Kuder Preference Record

Scale	D-$\bar{X}$	N-$\bar{X}$	t
0. Outdoor	42.32	48.48	-2.18*
1. Mechanical	41.30	47.62	-3.09**
2. Computational	22.64	25.22	-2.22*
3. Scientific	33.98	40.86	-3.26**
4. Persuasive	41.64	38.08	1.73
5. Artistic	29.18	27.22	0.93
6. Literary	18.68	17.46	0.79
7. Musical	14.68	12.44	1.74
8. Social Service	37.66	35.58	1.24
9. Clerical	47.84	48.00	0.16

*$p = .05$, $df = 49$
**$p = .01$, $df = 49$

Differences were observed only for the Outdoor, Mechanical, Computational, and Scientific scales. In each instance the nondelinquent *Ss* indicated a greater interest in these areas than the delinquent *Ss*, which could be regarded as being statistically significant.

From an interpretative point of view centile equivalents of raw scores below *C*25 and above *C*75 are indicative of weak and strong interests respectively. The profiles of *Ss* in the two groups were inspected for such "peaks" and "valleys." In the nondelinquent group 30 *Ss* scored above *C*75 on three or more of the 10 KPR scales, whereas only 16 *Ss* in the delinquent group so scored. In the nondelinquent group 26 *Ss* scored below *C*25 on three or more of the 10 KPR scales, while 28 *Ss* in the delinquent group so scored.

It was further observed that in 21 pairs of *Ss* the nondelinquent member of a pair scored above *C*75 on three or more of the 10 KPR scales, and in

pairs of *Ss* the delinquent member of a pair so scored. According to the Sign Test for matched groups this observation may be regarded as being statistically significant ($z = 1.96$, $p = 0.05$).

It was also noted that in 15 pairs of *Ss* the nondelinquent member of a pair scored below *C*25 on three or more of the 10 KPR scales and in 15 pairs of *Ss* the delinquent member of a pair so scored. The Sign Test in this instance was not statistically significant ($z = 0.65$, $p = 0.52$).

The profiles were examined for patterns of strong interest in the two groups by tabulating combinations of scales taken separately, two at a time in each group. In the nondelinquent group the frequency of such combinations was 138 but only 76 in the delinquent group. Pronounced interest patterns were accordingly observed among the nondelinquent *Ss* in the sense of more intense patterns. The frequency with which the more common combinations were observed are recorded in Table 2. Only those combinations are given which were found in the profiles of at least three *Ss*.

Table 2

Combinations of Interest Patterns on the Kuder Preference Record for Delinquent and Nondelinquent Groups

f	Combination
Delinquent	
7	6-9
6	4-9
4	4-6; 8-9
3	0-1; 0-5; 0-8; 2-6; 2-7; 2-9; 5-6; 5-8; 5-9; 6-7
Nondelinquent	
10	2-9
8	1-5; 6-9
7	0-1
6	1-3; 3-9
5	1-2; 2-3; 2-6; 4-6
4	0-3; 2-7; 5-6; 5-7
3	0-2; 0-8; 1-9; 2-4; 2-5; 2-8; 3-6; 3-8; 4-9; 6-7; 7-9

Note: Labels associated with the KPR scale numbers listed here are available in Table 1.

Discussion

Statistically significant differences were observed between the delinquent and nondelinquent *Ss* in the interest areas which may be labelled "scientific-technical," namely KPR scales 1, 2, and 3 (Mechanical, Computational, and Scientific.). These results were consistent with those of Corsini (1951), Darley (1941), and Klugman (1950). Darley argued that adequate home and emotional adjustment facilitates the development of interests in the specified areas.

Grade placement disparities cannot be ignored in accounting for the results that were obtained. In general, the nondelinquent *Ss* were approximately three semesters ahead of the delinquent *Ss*. It may then be contended that the delinquent was not exposed to some courses on the higher secondary school levels wherein scientific-technical interests might have been stimulated. Even though equal opportunities may have been available to the delinquent *Ss* to cultivate such interests before matriculation in high school, they were without the benefit of the additional three semesters of high school work which conceivably might have contributed to the intensity of their scientific-technical inclinations.

Moreover, the fruition of interests intrinsic to a selection of any of the technical occupations cannot be accomplished without a high degree of concentration and precision in thinking. Such qualities are incompatible with the emotional instability which is presumed to be characteristic of the delinquent. Granting the validity of the assumption that

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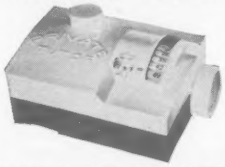

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the delinquent's preoccupation with his emotional difficulties interfers with prolonged and exacting effort, it could easily follow that the delinquent would not gravitate toward occupations requiring such expenditures of energies. Consequently, interests basic to such occupations would not be developed by him.

Outdoor interests paralleled the technical interests among the nondelinquent *Ss*. Such greater preference for outdoor activities could be easily explained if the *Ss* were products of a rural environment. As it was, however, all *Ss* were urban-reared. Success in outdoor activities, however, presupposes endurance and perseverance. Such qualities are, supposedly, wanting in the delinquent. Limited experience with outdoor activities, like Boy Scout projects, camping trips, and other forms of outdoor recreation, may be attributed to the delinquent. Such activities, nevertheless, may be postulated as being of significance in the stimulation of outdoor interests. They are in contrast with the clustering of delinquents and their activities in the congested urban areas.

In the other interest areas measured by the KPR, differences were not sufficiently great between the two groups to warrant special attention. Upon further inspection it may be noted that the K scales, for which statistically significant differen were not observed, may be described, in gener as wanting "appeal" for adolescent boys.

Can the thesis be propounded, nevertheless, th personality integration is a key factor in the d velopment of interest patterns essential for the de nition of vocational objectives? Can it be said th the emotional conflicts of the delinquent siphon o energies which could be effectively used in th crystallization of interest patterns? Is the nondeli quent sufficiently mature as compared to the deli quent to formulate vocational objectives earlier an then proceed to structure his activities around thos objectives? Can the nondelinquent be credited wit a self-direction of which the delinquent is incap able?

Summary

Fifty white delinquent male adolescents we paired with nondelinquent white male adolescent in an attempt to investigate differences in interes patterns as measured on the Kuder Preferen Record. Matching variables included chronologica age, placement in school, IQ, socio-economic statu and occupation of the father.

Statistically significant differences were obtaine on four of the ten KPR scales: Outdoor, Mecha cal, Computational, and Scientific. It was further ob served that nondelinquent *Ss* tended to have mo highly stabilized interest patterns as indicated b the number of scales on which centile equivalen were *C*75.

It was postulated that taking advantage of educa tional opportunities, coupled with emotional trai reflecting freedom from disruptive conflicts, ma be a primary factor to be considered in assessing the observed differences.

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The Report of the Study on the Educational Needs of Physically Handicapped Children in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, 1958-59

by

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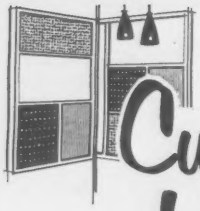

Current Literature

EDITOR'S NOTE: The following published materials have been received recently at Council headquarters. There has been no opportunity to evaluate and review them. They are presented here, with prices and addresses included where possible, for your information.

A Mechanical Device For Teaching Vocabulary To Young Deaf Children. Falconer, George A. Reprinted from American Annals of the Deaf, Vol. 106, No. 2, March, 1961. 8 p. ($.25).

The Integration of the Deaf in Schools for the Normal Hearing. O'Connor, Clarence D. Reprinted from American Annals of the Deaf, Vol. 106, No. 2, March, 1961. 4 p. ($.25).

Guide Lines for the Establishment of Rehabilitation Facilities for the Deaf: A special report based on a conference conducted at Fort Monroe, Virginia. Williams, Boyce R. (ed.). Reprinted from American Annals of the Deaf, Vol. 106, No. 3, May, 1961. 22 p. ($.50).

Significance of Public Attitudes in the Rehabilitation of the Disabled. Roeher, G. Allan. Reprinted from Rehabilitation Literature, Vol. 22, No. 3, March, 1961. 8 p. ($.25).

The Brain Injured (Neurologically Impaired) Deaf Child: A Discussion of the Significance of the Problem, Its Symptoms and Causes in Deaf Children. McCay, Vernon. Reprinted from American Annals of the Deaf, Vol. 106, No. 2, March, 1961. 12 p. ($.25).

You and Your Hearing. Canfield, Norton. New York: Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 315, Prepared in cooperation with the American Hearing Society and Royal Neighbors of America, July, 1961. 20 p. ($.25). Available from Public Affairs Pamphlets, 22 East 38th Street, New York 16.

Helping the Brain Injured Child. Siegel, Ernest. New York: Association for Brain Injured Children, 1961. 158 p.

Aphonic Communication For Those With Cerebral Palsy. Goldberg, Herman R., Fenton, Joseph (Coeds)., New York: United Cerebral Palsy Associations of New York State, 220 W. 42nd Street, New Y... 36, January, 1961. 40 p.

Everybody's Child—The Mentally Retarded. Wa... ington: Department of Health, Subcommitte... Mental Retardation, Smith Tower, Seattle 4, 19... 18 p. Available from State Printing Plant, Olymp... Washington.

Guidelines for the Future. Stevens, Godfrey ... Birch, Jack W. New York: United Cerebral Pa... Associations, Inc., 1959. 28 p.

Educating Gifted Children. DeHaan, Robert ... Havighurst, Robert J. Chicago: The University ... Chicago Press. Second edition, 1961. 362 p. ($5.0...

The Gifted: Educational Resources. Boston: Fr... ter Sargent, 11 Beacon St., Boston 8, Mass. 288 ... ($4.00).

Human Psychological Development. Vincen... Elizabeth Lee, Martin, Phyllis C. New York: Th... Ronald Press, 1961. 522 p. ($6.50).

Directory of Camps For The Handicapped. Amer... can Camping Association, Bradford Woods, Ma... tinsville, Indiana, 1961. 89 p. ($.50). Also availab... from the National Society for Crippled Childre... and Adults, 2023 West Ogden Avenue, Chicago 1... Illinois.

Rehabilitation and World Peace. Taylor, Euge... J. (Ed.). New York: International Society for Re... habilitation of the Disabled, 701 First Avenue, Ne... York 17. 433 p. ($1.50).

Prevention of Mental Disorders in Children. Ca... lan, Gerald. (Ed.). New York: Basic Books, Inc., 196... 425 p. ($8.50).

Teachers of Crippled Children and Teachers ... Children With Special Health Problems. Macki... Romaine, & Connor, Frances P. Washington, D.C.... U. S. Department of Health, Education, and We... fare, Office of Education, Bulletin 1960, No. 2... 124 p. ($.50). Available from Superintendent ... Documents, U. S. Government Printing Offic... Washington 25, D.C.

The Church and The Exceptional Person. Palme... Charles E. Tennessee: Abingdon Press, Nashvill... 2, 1961. 174 p. ($1.75).

Research on The Academically Talented Studen... Anderson, Kenneth E. (Ed.). Washington, D. C.... National Education Association of the Unite... States, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., 1961. 92 p... ($1.00).

World Frontiers in Special Education. Proceed... ings of the International Seminar on Specia... Education. New York: International Society fo... Rehabilitation of the Disabled, 701 First Avenue... New York 17. 50 p. ($1.00).

The Slow Learner in Secondary Schools. Durkee... Frank M. (President). New Jersey: Yearb., Second... ary School Teachers Association, 1961. 100 p... ($1.00). Available from Lester D. Beers, 1035 Kenyo... Avenue, Plainfield, New Jersey.

Contemporary Psychotherapies. Stein, Morris ... (Ed.). New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, A... Division of the Crowell-Collier Publishing Company... 640 Fifth Avenue, New York. 386 p. ($7.50).